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Teachers College RECORD

February 1930

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TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

VOL. XXXI, No. 5 FEBRUARY, 1930

WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, *Editor*
Dean of Teachers College

CLYDE J. TIDWELL, *Managing Editor*
Director, Bureau of Publications

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The Current

EDUCATIONAL YEARBOOK

International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University

***Edited by* I. L. KANDEL**
Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University

This volume, the fifth in the series, presents a concise, interesting, and convenient summary of the developments in education in England, France, Germany, Palestine, and the United States for the year 1928. Such topics as the following are discussed: The administration of education, preschool and kindergarten education, elementary and secondary education, trade and vocational education, teachers, tests and examinations, medical and social welfare, university education, current problems, statistics. Part two deals with the *Problem of Vocational Education*, which is considered in detail for England, France, Germany, and the United States. This is the first systematic account of the subject of Vocational Education in foreign countries that has appeared in English since the pre-war period.

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BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS, TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

VOLUME XXXI NUMBER 5

Teachers College
RECORD

February 1930

REPORT OF THE DEAN OF TEACHERS COLLEGE*

For the Academic Year Ending June 30, 1929

MEASURES OF PROGRESS

THE greatest concern of the educational executive is the progress of his institution. He knows that no school or college can remain static. Day by day it grows better or worse. History furnishes him examples of the decline and fall of universities that once were important, and he realizes that their life history seems to comprise a youth of ambition and growth and a middle age of power and service, all too often to be followed by a period of decline as ideals fade and practices become traditionalized until, unbeknown to faculty or administrative offices, senescence sets in and a renaissance is needed.

It is the uncertainty of being able to perceive this decline, if it occurs, that is the cause of worry. The head of a business enterprise can judge by the volume of sales and the balance sheet, but no such simple standards are available for the college. For many years Teachers College has set itself the task of discovering and providing for others measures of progress and decline. So successful has been this enterprise that at the present time a principal wishing to determine the present status of his school in comparison with others, or with his own institution at some previous date, has available for his use tests and scales in most of the school subjects, score cards by which

* From the bulletin comprising the report of the Dean and the reports of the Directors of the several Schools, Institutes and administrative departments of the College, for the year ending June 30, 1929.

to rate buildings, equipment, janitors and teachers, and partial measures of such elusive traits as school citizenship or character. The president of a liberal arts college has at hand the results of recent researches in developing standards for higher education, but there is little indeed that we at Teachers College can apply to ourselves. Is Teachers College better than it was a decade ago, or worse? Are we still on the upgrade or are we settling into a gradual decline that will become more pronounced as the years go by? Do our students receive the training that they should? Do we do all that we can? It is true that the number of our students grows, that our income increases, that foundations continue their grants, and that benefactors make gifts. These are encouraging, but not unfailing, signs of progress. Unfortunately, there is no commonly accepted and certain standard by which to judge, and not until some future day, from the experience of our graduates, shall we be able to say, "We continued to forge ahead from 1925 to 1935," or "We fell behind in those years." Then it will be too late to do anything about it.

In order to guard against the possible danger of unnoticed decline, we must keep constantly before us the problem of self-improvement, preserve an objective attitude toward our work, be open-minded to our critics and as receptive as possible to new ideas.

PROBLEM OF QUALITY AND QUANTITY IN EDUCATION

To this end, the College during the past year has been attacking the problem discussed in my last report. We still have the difficulty of trying to give quality education in quantity at relatively low cost. Last year there were nearly 20,000 students. During the winter there were nearly 6,000 regular students in Teachers College, together with some 750 students from other parts of the University. From endowment we received an income of less than $200,000, or little more than $30 per student. When one considers the joint plea made by the women's colleges in the *Atlantic Monthly*, wherein they complained that they received from endowment only $120 per student and hence were handicapped, one can clearly see the situation at Teachers College. Our students pay from $300 to $360 for a year's tuition. This, together with $20 as the University fee, a graduation fee, and $30 from endowment, forms the total which we can expend and remain solvent. The problem is how to provide the best quality

of training at this figure. It was suggested a year ago that this difficulty is not peculiar to Teachers College, but that sooner or later it will force itself upon most of our educational institutions if America continues to desire more and better education for all.

THE LIBRARY

Professor Charles E. Rush, the new librarian, has been hard at work during the year, and, assisted by a grant of $50,000 to be paid by the Carnegie Corporation in five annual installments, is making a start in developing the library as we planned a year ago. As in most matters affecting schools or colleges, progress comes slowly. A multitude of factors are involved. Inspection of the report of the librarian reveals the progress that has been made in putting the library into shape, making it more accessible to students, improving the collections and uniting the whole to class work. We are now preparing to put into operation the plans for bibliographical service.

EDUCATIONAL IDEALS

The first step toward the improvement of instruction was made during seven evening conferences of the entire professorial staff, together with the administrative officers and associates. The purpose was to develop the problem of self-improvement of the College, to discover our shortcomings, and to agree, if possible, upon means for the eradication of our faults and the betterment of our practices. As a stimulus to thought there were sent to each attending member mimeographed copies of recent indictments of the work done in our schools of education; but this was unnecesary, for from within our own ranks came a mass of criticism and suggestion. Not one phase of our work was omitted. Apparently there is nothing that all will agree is done as well as it might be. The long list of criticisms as they were made reveals a tangled mass of conflicting suggestions based upon the differing interests, training, background, philosophy, and ideals of one hundred and twenty men and women. Some of the suggestions are sweeping, some minute; some apply to all our work, some to that of one professor or one field; some are extravagant and exaggerated, some are penetrating and precise; but the total forms a clue to the ambitions of our staff and friends elsewhere as to the kind of institution Teachers College should become. Out of

these criticisms we hope to develop the standards that we lack, so that in the future we may be able to recognize step by step our progress or decline while it is in process. If there were general agreement, the task would be simple; but we have many educational traditions, we hold conflicting ideals. The future pattern of work in Teachers College will depend upon the relative merit of at least four educational ideals that lie behind and are the explanation of the conflicting judgments that we make. From among these we must either select or effect some sort of compromise.

THE CONTINENTAL IDEAL

The first ideal, based upon the continental university, is that a professional school like Teachers College should become an advanced research institution with a relatively small number of professors, each selected for his proficiency in investigation and for his encyclopædic command of a field of human knowledge. Assisting him should be a number of junior associates, but the professor alone should determine the quality of research and scholarship required of candidates for degrees. Only the superior student should receive attention. Instruction should be carried on by carefully prepared lectures, seminars, and individual conferences. Examination at the close of the student career should be the sole test of success. There should be required no attendance at class, no "grades," no term examinations, no student discipline. To the holder of this ideal many practices of the usual college of education seem to lack merit. He looks down upon certain professors; he deplores the absence of what he considers scholarship; he criticizes the standard set for Doctor's dissertations; he would restrict the right to direct research; he is concerned whether a course is "graduate" or not; he feels that students receive too much assistance, and he regrets spending time upon the inferior and unfit.

THE ENGLISH UNIVERSITY IDEAL

The second ideal, coming from the English university, is that Teachers College should become somewhat like Oxford or Cambridge. At entrance, the student would say to himself: "I am about to follow upward along the educational path. I shall read in the library. I may listen to lectures. I must find a tutor who will guide me; and in the company of my friends, I shall have an opportunity

to study, listen, discuss, and grow. I shall broaden my horizon. I shall travel. Later on, if I prove competent, I shall take the examinations for a degree." The holder of this ideal is concerned with the lack of adjustment of an institution like Teachers College to the widely varying abilities and backgrounds of the students. He desires to emphasize larger and broader problems rather than to center upon techniques. Courses and requirements he considers Procrustean. The lecture and course system he judges to be inefficient, because of the inevitable repetition, in part, of that which the student either already knows or could read elsewhere. He feels that the student tends to become pedantic and that education is incomplete if it fails to include artistic creation, shared appreciations in music, art, and literature, and fellowship with students and professors. He also objects to marks, periodic examinations, and special attention to the poorer student.

THE STANDARDIZED COLLEGE IDEAL

The third ideal is the American college, neither the college of a half-century ago with its fixed requirements and personal attention of a select staff to a small student body, nor that of the last few years with the great improvements that have been made, but the college of the beginning of the twentieth century, after the accrediting agencies had fixed the standards. The holder of this ideal believes that higher education is not the achievement of a standard of proficiency, but the collection of a certain number of hours, units, credits, and points. Education is something that one may add up. He is concerned with such problems as entrance standards, hours for graduation, credit for part-time work, Saturday classes, and correspondence courses. To him there is something sacred about A, B, C, D, and F. He worries about required attendance, "cuts," excuses for absence, duplication of courses, prerequisites, and whether a student should take two-point, three-point, four-point, or five-point courses for a degree, and in what proportion. He thinks that he understands the difference between credit and "residence" credit and he has fathomed the distinction between graduate and undergraduate work. He is concerned whether courses are difficult or easy and he wants to stiffen them up. It is his joy to standardize, to systematize, to inspect, and to accredit. His influence on American higher education is profound;

the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico he has infected; and even the colleges supported by American mission boards in China and the Near East have not been spared.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL IDEAL

The fourth ideal is that of the professional school. The holder of this tradition has a definite method which he follows until habit interferes or conflicting educational practices force a change. He first looks into the world to discover the various qualifications necessary to success in a given occupation or profession. He then studies this list of abilities and traits, dividing them into two parts, those which are either inborn or so elusive as to resist training and those which are teachable. The former are the foundation of his plan of student selection. The latter are divided into those for which preliminary education can best be responsible, those which can be gained individually and incidentally, and those which can only be gained in connection with a professional school. The last form the basis for university work on which, with the limits of the time that the student can afford to spend in preparation, the professionally minded professor arranges the program of studies. It matters little to him whether the work be easy or hard, graduate or undergraduate, two-point or five-point, resident or extramural. His test is whether or not the work given prepares the student to practice his profession.

The professor seeks no admiration for his scholarship, nor does he desire academic respectability. If taxidermy or blacksmithing be necessary, it is just as good as anthropology or Sanskrit to him. He cannot divide his work into neat multiples of thirty hours. One ability or trait may demand fifteen minutes to develop, another five hundred hours. His teaching depends upon research; he respects it, and he may even be a skilled investigator himself; but he has no faith in an academic tradition that forces his students to spend a major portion of their time painfully acquiring techniques that they will never use. He judges a dissertation by its success in developing in the student a useful ability. He is charitable to the so-called poor student, because he knows that the judgment as to "poor" or "good" is usually based upon the ability to acquire knowledge or conduct research, rather than upon the ability to do the work in the world.

In rapidly developing fields like education or practical arts he dislikes to see training discontinued with the granting of a degree and he considers it his responsibility to provide journals, conferences, extension work, institutes, and postgraduate courses to assist the practitioner after he has entered upon his profession. He is always an advocate of practical contact with the field.

The person who believes in the professional ideal disagrees heartily with the other three. The American college, in his opinion, affords a standard only for the important culminating years of secondary education, using the term in its European sense. He has seen the wave of German influence break with its seminars, lectures, and examinations, and he is watching the English tide bear to our shores colleges within a college, readings for honors, and guidance plans. He knows that in Germany and England these concepts do not apply to professional education, save for the training of professors and research workers. He nevertheless admits the justice of many of the criticisms directed against professional education.

The purpose of professional education is direct and distinct and the general attitudes are of the types depicted, but here the uniformity ends. The qualities necessary to success in different professions vary from attitudes, background, and philosophy at one extreme to the mastery of minute techniques at the other; and, in consequence, the methods used to achieve these ends in differing proportions in different schools resemble each other not at all. Thus we find the old European normal school emphasizing only the mastery of techniques and the theological seminary confining its attention to fundamentals and background. The law school includes no practice, reserving that for the apprentice years to follow; while the medical school provides for observation, diagnosis, and interneship after an extended period of preparation. In law, business, and library schools, there is a grouping of knowledge, ability, and skill about practical situations as they are artificially introduced by the case method. Thus some believe that professional training consists in theorizing concerning practical situations already experienced; some that it is best advanced if students practice in the light of theory and knowledge learned; some that theory and practice should go hand in hand.

THE IDEALS TEACHERS COLLEGE SHALL SERVE

It is evident, therefore, that Teachers College has not yet decided, to the satisfaction of all concerned, which of the ideals it shall serve. In the reports of the Dean of Teachers College prior to 1928, the relative merits of the academic, research, and professional ideals were thoroughly discussed and the weight of evidence toward the professional was clearly shown; but the continued advocacy of the others indicates the desirability of supplementing the professional by incorporating the good features of the others if and where possible. We cannot do less than consider their possible application to each of the many different plans for professional preparation found in Teachers College which will correspond to the wide variety of occupations for which we train.

At one point there was found an opportunity for harmony between the research and professional ideals. In the field of educational psychology, the advanced students prepare for positions as college professors, research workers, and directors of laboratories. Clearly the research ideal at this point is also professional. To test this, it was agreed to institute a new plan of work for students who have passed the matriculation examination and thus have been accepted as candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. These students may register for one course which will occupy their entire time for the academic year. A certain professor will meet with the student, and by extended conference the two will plan a year of reading, research, and occasional attendance upon courses, either full time or in part, as shall seem wise to both. There will be no fixed requirements, other than a searching examination at the close of the year. The purpose is to make available all the facilities of the College.

It was also agreed to try a second experiment, a new plan for the training of prospective critic teachers for normal schools, and thus test the worth of relatively informal work in a nonacademic professional field. In these institutions as usually found in the United States, students from high school enter with the purpose of becoming teachers in two, three, or four years' time. The faculty of the normal school gives courses in so-called academic subjects, such as mathematics and history, and in so-called professional subjects, such as educational psychology and methods of teaching. Usually in another building near-by is the training school; and here the prospective

teacher is required to observe classes in which the academic subjects that he has studied are taught to children according to the professional principles he has learned. Later on he spends a number of hours in practice teaching. This observation and practice teaching is under the direction of the critic teacher, who, to hold this key position, must not only know the subjects and how to teach children, but also be able to guide and direct young teachers as well. It is a difficult post even for the trained teacher of experience, and it can readily be seen that Teachers College has no easy task in providing the corresponding professional training. The experimental course now being introduced requires attendance for a full calendar year, with credit the same as for the student who enters in September and leaves in June. The student registers for one class which will occupy his entire time and, as in the plan in psychology, there are conferences with an instructor and an informal organization. This plan differs from the former in that students are admitted only by invitation, that a period of four months is spent in practice as a critic teacher in one of several affiliated normal schools, and that greater attendance at lectures and class exercises is contemplated.

Five evening sessions are scheduled for January next. Reports of committees and the discussions of last year will form the basis for further steps. We shall watch the results of these experiments with great interest, especially their relative effectiveness as compared with our present work and also their cost.

PROFESSORIAL TRAINING

There is an important phase of the development of the College that was not mentioned in the staff conferences. The success of teaching depends primarily upon the men and women who teach. When Teachers College was growing, there was gathered together upon Morningside Heights the most distinguished faculty in education and practical arts to be found anywhere in the world. When appointed, most of the professors were young; to-day on the retired list are only seven of their names. Within the next ten years twenty full professors will reach the age of retirement. Much of the future of the College depends upon their successors.

The older College brought together the divergent views of many different institutions. The men who built Teachers College received

their training at Jena, Dickinson, Rostock, Syracuse, Chicago, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, and Harvard. If we now consider the younger members next in line for the same posts, we find that they are nearly all graduates of Teachers College. It is thus apparent that we are in danger of becoming intellectually inbred; and no matter how much we read, study, and travel, there is a possibility that we may not be in thorough sympathy with what the rest of the world is doing.

One solution to this problem is to select professors who have received their training elsewhere; and this has been accomplished to some extent in the recent appointment of representatives of Chicago, Harvard, Iowa, Minnesota, and Brown. Another is to encourage foreign study during the first sabbatical leave, but for most professors this is ten years distant from the time of taking the Doctor's degree. We need to be able to send the younger members of our staff away for further study, some to institutions in our own land and some to foreign countries. It is difficult for them to leave: their salaries are low, family responsibilities heavy; and usually they are still in debt for their professional training. It is doubtful if a decade hence Teachers College will have as distinguished a faculty as it now has; but the chances would be far more favorable if we were financially able to guarantee that at no place in the world would there be a movement in education or practical arts with which we were unfamiliar; and if we could be certain that our professors not only had received the best that we had to offer, but had tested and advanced that training among scholars elsewhere in the world.

TEACHERS COLLEGE AND THE FOREIGN STUDENT

Six and one-half years ago Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., established the International Institute of Teachers College by a gift of one million dollars to be paid at the rate of one hundred thousand dollars a year through the International Education Board. This institute was to serve a triple purpose: to give special advice and instruction to the ever-increasing number of students and teachers from foreign lands, to bring the schools of the United States into touch with the best of foreign theory and practice, and upon request to render direct assistance to educational authorities in foreign countries. In large measure these objectives have been attained. The International Institute has cared for some four hundred students each

year coming from almost every country in the world. It has developed specially devised plans for instruction and guidance, notably the extended trips taken by whole classes to view schools not only in New York and vicinity, but also in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. The Yearbooks of the International Institute, its monographs, and library furnish authoritative information about recent developments abroad; and, in the relationships of the Director and his staff, there have been more friendly advisory contacts established with educational authorities abroad than would have been thought possible.

From the educational experiences of the United States, the foreign student can learn much—much to imitate and much to avoid. Of especial interest are our long efforts to provide schooling for all, the tendencies toward democracy, the development of a science of education, the attempts to solve the educational problems of the Indian and the Negro, and the experiences in Porto Rico and the Philippines. But to many of our foreign students the most illuminating and the most informing part in all our history of education is the relatively recent development of education in the Southern states. Many countries in the world to-day curiously resemble the South of a generation ago. There is the same spiritual discouragement resulting from unsuccessful warfare; the same economic depression due to losses of men and property; the same inability to forge ahead, due to the unproductivity, the wastefulness, and ill health that are consequent upon a lack of schooling; and the same pride and self-reliance that refuse to ask for aid and scorn it when offered. Our foreign students follow with keen interest the way in which Seaman A. Knapp and his associates, by means of corn, pig, and canning clubs, taught the children, and through them the elders, how to produce and conserve; and thus developed an economic base upon which schools and other social agencies could be built. They watch the development of agricultural and home demonstration work. They see the Rockefeller Foundation stamping out hookworm, malaria, trachoma, and other diseases. In their imaginations they join the parties of travelers with Robert C. Ogden and learn how men and women of the North became interested in the problem, and come to appreciate the astuteness of Dr. Wallace Buttrick and the members of the General Education Board who selected promising and well-connected young men,

sent them away to secure training and new ideas, and gave them support and assistance after their return home. They watch the development of a system of schools and see that this is followed by further increase of production, decrease of waste, and improved health, which in turn provide better education; so that at the present time the South affords the North and the West examples of the best that is found in American education, especially in certain aspects of state school administration and rural education. Thus our foreign students learn that the educational rehabilitation of the South was a result neither of schools and colleges supported by the North, nor of educational missionaries, nor of acts of congress or legislatures; but that the development came rather from the sequence of four factors: the presence of men of vision, the development of an economic base, the training of leaders, and the encouragement of their work of promotion at home. This is a significant lesson, possibly the most important to be learned from the history of education in the United States.

Thirty years ago the United States faced the problem of the rehabilitation of the South. In a sense the whole world is facing this same question in relation to certain backward countries. Everywhere there are war-ridden areas populated by proud people who are dispirited and economically impoverished, whose advance is blocked because they lack men of vision, an economic base, men of training, and schools. Through the stimulation of agriculture and the advancement of science the International Education Board is duplicating in the world to-day the step taken by Seaman A. Knapp a generation ago. This will in time yield an improved economic base, as will also the health work of the Rockefeller Foundation. The need for a Robert C. Ogden is not so acute, although much could be done to enlist the interest of men of means in England, Holland, France, and Japan as well as in the United States. The International Institute of Teachers College has been giving training to students who come to the United States, granting them scholarships and expenses of travel. The International Education Board has been giving fellowships for study to scientists and agriculturists. But there has been a missing link. To complete the chain, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees of Teachers College, Mr. V. Everit Macy, and Mrs. Macy gave one hundred thousand dollars to be expended

in five years. The plan was for the Director of the International Institute and his associates to make personal contacts with educational authorities in other lands and, in consultation with them, to select men and women young enough to profit from foreign study and training but sufficiently mature to have already demonstrated their ability at home. These persons were to be invited to spend a year at Teachers College with all expenses paid. For each of the last five years there have been from ten to twenty of these holders of the Macy Grants at Teachers College.

THE CONFERENCE AT GENEVA

It was the custom of Dr. Buttrick in former days to hold, periodically, conferences of the men who had been trained and were then at work; and, in pursuance of the same policy, Mr. Macy financed the first conference of the International Institute held at Geneva this summer. The following representatives were in attendance:

From Poland: The Director of Vocational Education in the Ministry of Education.
From Germany: The Director of the Bureau of Elementary Education, Prussian Ministry.
A Professor of Education, University of Hamburg.
Three Professors in Gymnasiums.
From France: A Normal School Professor.
From Spain: A Primary School Inspector, Madrid.
From Norway: Two Junior College Professors, Oslo.
From Scotland: The Lecturer in Education, University of Glasgow.
A Secondary School Teacher.
From England: The Professor of Philosophy, University of Bristol.
From Austria: The Supervisor of Science, Vienna.
From Czechoslovakia: The Lecturer on Education, Masaryk University.
A Professor of Education, Normal School at Brno.
From Hungary: The Director of the Bureau of Higher Education, Ministry of Education.
A State Supervisor of Secondary Schools.
A Teacher of Child Psychology in Normal School.
From Bulgaria: A College Professor.
From Jugoslavia: The Librarian of the Ministry of Education.
From Roumania: The Special Councillor of the Roumanian Legation, Paris, and Editor of an Educational Journal.
From Turkey: Two Normal School Teachers.

From Iraq: The Educational Director, Bagdad.
A Normal School Professor, Bagdad.
From Egypt: A University Dean.
An Educational Editor.
From India: A Professor in Andhra College, Madras.
From China: Three University Presidents.
A Dean of Women.
From Japan: A Professor in Tokyo Higher Normal College.
From the Philippine Islands: The Dean of the School of Education, University of the Philippines.
From Switzerland: Two Secondary School Professors.
An Associate in the Jean Jacques Rousseau Institute.
From the United States: Two members of the Board of Trustees of Teachers College.
Two Teachers from the Horace Mann School.
Seven Professors from Teachers College.

We are familiar with the many successful international conclaves of scientists and physicians. One wonders if there was ever one like this in the field of the social sciences. Here were fifty men and women from twenty-two different countries. Each spoke English. Each had attended Teachers College for at least a year (with one exception), had visited the same schools, had read the same books and reports, and, in consequence, understood the technical terminology of each other as well as any group of students in Teachers College would understand each other. It was not a conference of young students. These were mature men and women, nearly all Doctors of Philosophy or the equivalent, occupying posts of considerable responsibility in their own lands. Without preliminaries the conference went right to work and there followed three days of penetrating discussion of the problems of teacher training, elementary and secondary education, and vocational and professional training. It was interesting to note the growth of these men and women since they had been with us in New York, their keenness in analyzing problems, and the ways in which they were taking the lead in backward countries and were gradually overcoming obstacles in advanced countries. The Geneva conference could have continued for weeks. No one wanted it to stop. A permanent organization was effected, recommendations were made for future meetings at intervals of from three to five years, and a keen desire was expressed for the

establishment of some sort of journal to provide better means of intercommunication and to facilitate coöperative investigation and research.

It is quite clear that educators in the United States can no longer afford to remain ignorant of developments in the schools of the rest of the world. There was a period when there was some foundation for the belief that we could better depend upon ourselves. We were almost alone in developing a school system to meet the needs of a democracy. The science of professional education was primarily American in its origin and its development. Training for the professions connected with teaching was a subject for university concern only in the United States. But these conditions have changed. Most countries in the world are now democracies, and school systems are being modified in accord. Contributions to the scientific study of education now originate in every land. Professional training for teachers and research in education are being assumed as university responsibilities in many countries. Just as the South was advanced by Northern aid to the point where it excelled and became an example for the North itself, so from recently backward and static cultures we shall in the future have much to learn.

The conference at Geneva was also a justification of the belief that the methods used by Dr. Buttrick a generation ago in the educational rehabilitation of the South are workable in the world situation to-day. All over the world there are graduates of Teachers College who are one with us in training, in ideals, and in spirit. They have received much from us; they have much to give in return. It is encouraging to realize that we have been able to achieve sympathy, good will, and coöperation in this most difficult field of education—most difficult not only because it is based on the inexact sciences of psychology, sociology, and economics, but also because it involves those delicate fields of religion, government, and politics; and if friendly international coöperation be possible in education, there is no reason why in time it may not be achieved in all branches and aspects of life everywhere in the world.

Respectfully submitted,
WILLIAM F. RUSSELL,
Dean

September 26, 1929

EDUCATIONAL PUBLICITY FOR TEACHERS COLLEGE

By CLYDE R. MILLER

Director of the Bureau of Educational Service, Teachers College

"WHAT constitutes good educational publicity?" asks a Teachers College faculty committee.

It is assumed the committee members have particularly in mind news and feature articles appearing in newspapers rather than the publicity comprised by college publications such as catalogues, theses, and monographs, and rather than display advertising in newspapers and magazines and advertising over the radio. On this assumption this discussion treats of the relationship that should exist between Teachers College and the press. If newspaper publicity is desired, two methods of attempting to obtain it appear open:

First: Let one college office prepare for the press such releases as are approved either by a central governing authority or by individual faculty and staff members, and have all contacts with the press made through that office.

Second: Permit faculty and staff members to have such contacts with the press as they and the press may care to make.

Each method involves conditions peculiar to itself. Each can result in many news articles about Teachers College in the daily press. With neither method can the faculty and staff members be certain of getting exactly what they want. Newspaper writers and editors, like professors, select from much that is available, and discard what they don't care to use. In Teachers College, as in other institutions, the routine activities usually are without news value, and are not material that newspapers would publish for their hundreds of thousands of readers. Information about the content of courses and the types of professional activities found at the College is of interest primarily to students, prospective students, and former students, and, to a less extent, to other persons who have a professional interest in education. The catalogue and other publica-

tions of the College, as well as its professional journals, comprise the logical media for the dissemination of such information. If exact presentation to the general public of a College idea or activity is desired, newspapers will gladly sell display advertising space for that purpose.[1] If faculty and staff members of Teachers College desire to have their activities or those of their students made the basis of news articles, they must accept the fact that such news is subject to the same processes of selection (involving omission, editing, and emphasis) as all other news.

Can news articles comprise good educational publicity for the College?

It is safe to say that any faculty or staff member would say they can, pointing to examples to prove his case; and would say, also, that news stories often comprise very poor publicity, again citing examples as proof. Indeed, this question has actually been asked, and what some consider good, others think is very bad publicity. This point is of prime importance. It brings us back to the two methods already suggested: Have one central authority handle all releases to the newspapers, or permit any faculty or staff member to deal with the press as he pleases.

The first method can give assurance to a central governing authority that no news will be released which that authority does not approve. This method would involve a violation of academic freedom wholly out of keeping with the history and ideals of Teachers College. Or, permitting full academic freedom, such a central publicity office could give assurance to members of the faculty and staff that what was released would be exactly what they wanted released. But it could not guarantee publication of the articles. Indeed, if these were released just as faculty members wanted them to appear, it is possible few would appear. One can write a story for the papers, but he cannot make the papers print it. If the person in

[1] Many educational institutions buy display space. Columbia University, for instance, uses beautiful, dignified, and effective display advertisements to advertise its extension courses. Many private educational institutions use display advertisements in magazines and newspapers; for example, The Alexander Hamilton Institute and the International Correspondence Schools, and the schools which promise that you will surprise your friends by addressing the waiter in French, and those which can transform you from a wall flower into the life of the party. Look through the popular magazines and you will find all kinds of educational advertisements, ranging from those inserted by reputable institutions to those suggesting quacks and charlatans. Teachers College not only has insufficient money to utilize display advertising to attract students, but the College's appeal to a selected group of graduate students precludes the use of this device.

charge of the central publicity office knew what newspapers are likely to print, he could advise professors and college officers how to alter the articles in order to increase the possibility of their being printed. He might even write the articles for them and, with their approval, submit them to the press. Such a person would be a publicity agent, more commonly known as a press agent.

Many colleges and universities have publicity bureaus in which one or more press agents are employed. One eastern university publicity bureau, perhaps the most elaborate in the country, was said, a year ago, to have a staff of eighteen trained persons headed by a director of publicity. The cost of college press bureaus will exceed, in several instances, $15,000 to $20,000 a year. Many business houses supplement their display advertising by "news matter" prepared or stimulated by press agents. Such press agentry frequently involves censorship and usually results in the "best-foot-forward" type of publicity. Any private institution has a right to make use of it. For reasons which are at once ethical, patriotic, and scientific, Teachers College, notwithstanding its technical right to utilize such press agentry, is under a moral obligation not to utilize it. This obligation arises from the fact that Teachers College, although privately financed, is essentially a public institution. Certain basic distinctions must be drawn between what is right for a private institution and what is right for a public institution in a democracy.

This college is justified in having an information bureau for the convenience of news writers and other visitors, but such a bureau should not interfere with direct contacts between faculty and staff members and the press.[2] At Teachers College no one is hampered by censorship. Faculty and staff are free to talk and write for publication. This is the only practice open to a public institution operating in a democracy and setting democratic standards of education for a democracy. It carries some of the virtues that are associated with democracy. It carries some of the evils, too. It is not fool-proof. It will result in much publicity that is stimulating and helpful not only to the College but to the democracy in and for which the College exists. True, it will result sometimes in publicity which is distorted,

[2] The Bureau of Educational Service, in addition to its major duties, functions, in so far as it can, as an information bureau. The Bureau does not and should not assume responsibility for what appears in newspapers as a result of interviews it may help to arrange between reporters and faculty and staff members. That responsibility must be borne by reporters and by those whom reporters interview and by newspapers which print the interviews.

irritating, harmful, and lacking in dignity. Like democracy itself, the publicity will not be perfect. This point emphasizes the obligation of faculty and staff to consider carefully what they say for publication.[3]

There are strong reasons why Teachers College faculty and staff relationships with newspapers *should* be free and unhampered. Teachers College exists for the development of education not only as an art but as a *science*. An essential of science, a condition which makes its development probable, is freedom for the expression and conflict of ideas. Teachers College, if it is to continue its inspiring record of revealing truths in the developing science of education, must give to all of its workers, as it has given to them in the past, and as it gives to them now, the liberty to express their own ideas and to question the ideas of others. It must withhold this liberty from none.

The philosopher of education, if his thought is to have any worth, may have to speak in sharp terms of certain notions of the curriculum constructionists. The educational economist is quite within his rights if he questions the worth of the activities of many of his colleagues in education. The educational sociologist is tethered and futile if he is not permitted to discuss fully and frankly what he believes are the errors of school-administration professors and what he thinks are the heresies of curriculum-makers and philosophers. The work of the educational psychologist comes to little or nothing if it does not come into conflict with the practices advocated by those who give instruction in the methods of teaching, the techniques of supervision, and the principles of school administration.

The scientist is not offended if his proposals are questioned and his teachings are attacked. He may respond vigorously to the attack, but not in personal terms. So long as Teachers College remains an institution devoted to education as a science, it will continue to cherish an academic freedom not confined to departmental enclosures and not limited to favored individuals. Good taste and common sense will be found sufficient safeguards, ordinarily, against abuse of this freedom.

[3] In many instances it is well for faculty and staff members to prepare typewritten copies of statements and addresses desired by newspapers, and thus reduce the possibility of misunderstanding and misinterpretation.

The battle for the free expression of ideas in the field of the physical sciences has been won; but it is yet in process in the field of the social sciences of which education is a part. For more than a generation Teachers College has been in the front line in this conflict in so far as education has been concerned. By giving to its workers the right to express new thoughts, it has helped to transform and immeasurably improve the education of children in America and throughout the world. Some of its workers and its researches have met with abuse and ridicule. Some of the ideas proposed have, no doubt, been ridiculous; and the future may reveal others of doubtful value. But the future will reveal many that are helpful and beneficial if the faculty and staff members continue to receive at Teachers College that freedom of expression which is essential to the work of scientists. The very nature of the College, as a scientific institution, precludes any restriction of freedom of expression.

Professor Thomas H. Briggs in his Inglis Lecture [4] said:

> I am often asked, "What does Teachers College think about so and so?" The truthful answer is that the college, as an institution, holds no position, advocates no theory of education. It selects its faculty and, as every such institution must, permits each member untrammeled to present whatever his reflections and his researches lead him to believe.

Some of our faculty were in almost violent disagreement with certain criticisms of secondary education made by Dr. Briggs in that lecture. But not one would deny Dr. Briggs his right to say what he said; and every one would demand, and would have a right to demand, expression of his own view. (Whether that particular view would be sufficiently interesting to be published by the newspapers is another matter.) This spirit—which is essentially the spirit of science, of democracy, and of liberal education—gives a clear answer, at least in so far as freedom of speech and press relationships are concerned, as to what policy and practice characterize the publicity of Teachers College.

No one person can speak for the College; he can speak only for himself. Out of this circumstance, involving so many conflicting views, there arises, quite incidentally, a condition that means increasing numbers of persons who have respect for the College. If the College stood for one idea and one only in school administration, in

[4] Harvard University, January 9, 1930.

educational psychology, in educational philosophy or sociology, it would alienate persons not in accord with that view. But when that view is opposed by somebody on the faculty or staff, the enemies of the idea can see health in the institution after all. Hence it is that Teachers College has hosts of friends who are followers of Professor Bagley, hosts who are followers of Professor Kilpatrick, others who think Professor Rugg has reached education's El Dorado, and still others who believe that, unlike so many of his fellows, Professor Snedden is the repository of really sound educational philosophy.[5]

Another reason why Teachers College faculty and staff members are free to deal directly and frankly with the press lies in the fact that Teachers College is, for all practical purposes, *a public institution in a democracy*. It has trained scores of thousands of public school workers. It is training thousands more who are to enter the public school service of this and of other nations. These thousands should be taught that the workers in public institutions are servants of the public, that they owe an accounting to the public.

No public school administrator, in a democracy, has a right to say: "This is my school and how I run it is my business and not yours." No teacher in a public school has a right to refuse to discuss his work with friends, parents, or others. No public school administrator has a right to forbid the teachers in his charge to discuss their work fully and frankly. That some administrators in our country do this does not justify their action. It is the patriotic duty of Teachers College to teach that free schools and a free press are essential to our democracy, and it has the obligation to practice what it preaches.

We cannot look primarily to the army and navy, to the police power of the state, to court officials, to tax collectors, nor to law makers, as the chief preservers of democratic freedom. The free public schools and the free press hold this honorable distinction and this responsibility.[6] Upon them every lover of democracy must

[5] The constructive aspects of criticism of theories, proposals, and ideas brought forth by scientists in education were pointed out by Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College in an address before the Educational Press Association in Cleveland, February, 1929. Dean Russell expressed regret that educators were not as vigorous in their criticism of one another's ideas as are workers in other fields of science. His address was before a group interested primarily in professional journals rather than in newspapers, but the implications of his statements went beyond articles published in professional journals.

[6] Virtually a paraphrase of the stirring address by Claude G. Bowers (author of *Jefferson and Hamilton; the Struggle for Democracy in America*) at the Lincoln School before a parents' meeting, November 21, 1929. Senator Arthur Capper was quoted in the *New York Times* of July 14, 1929, as saying: "It is the free American newspaper more than the American Constitution that keeps us a free people."

continue to depend. Freedom of speech is essential to democracy as it is essential to science and to liberal education. Every public school should teach this. Every free newspaper should preach it. Teachers College, as a scientific institution, as a public institution in a democracy, as an institution influencing educational philosophy and practice throughout the nation, should, in its own policy and practice, set an example to every public school system in America. It should cherish the same relationship between itself and the press which should exist in a democracy between all public schools and the press.[7] Only technically is Teachers College a private institution.

Further, as an institution dedicated to *public education* in a democracy, Teachers College is bound to coöperate with other institutions that are important factors in education and of such, with the exception of the public schools, the press is, perhaps, the most important.

The close relationship which should exist between the press and schools of education is obvious.[8] Nevertheless, for all of this obviousness, the relationship is not close save in exceptional cases. Many educators distrust and fear the press. Many newspaper writers hold professional educators in contempt. Closer contact between educators and newspaper workers would reduce this distrust, fear, and contempt. Teachers College has a clear responsibility here. It is located just across the street from the Pulitzer School of Journalism of Columbia University, perhaps the most influential journalism school in the world. Most of the reporters who cover Teachers College for the New York papers are advanced students in journalism in Columbia. Nearly every day some of these young folk come to Teachers College in search of news or of interviews that will make news. Many of these students within the next ten years will be filling positions of importance in journalism. It is the professional

[7] In no other country, save perhaps England, is the press so free, and so reliable as in our own. Albin E. Johnson, Geneva correspondent of *Editor & Publisher*, in an article in that magazine, January 11, 1930, wrote:

"Seven hundred million people, constituting a large per cent of the population of the world, living in a dozen countries, read a censored press. The statement seems preposterous, yet, nevertheless, it is true. In many of the most enlightened countries, countries which boast of having cradled liberty, culture and democracy—Italy, Spain, France and Poland—The Powers That Be do not regard it safe (for themselves) or desirable (for others) that the populations over which they rule have complete knowledge of political, and in some cases economic, truths.

"According to official statistics, the population of Italy, Spain, Russia, China, Hungary, Jugoslavia, Poland, Turkey, Albania, Roumania, Lithuania and French Syria, is 699,728,000, or was at the last census. In every one of these countries, disclaimers to the contrary, complete or partial censorship exists. In Spain and Italy the gag is thorough; in Jugoslavia, Russia, Poland, Lithuania and Turkey, a newspaper may print what it likes—but it is neither safe nor sane for an editor to like to print anything that is uncomplimentary to the existing régime."

[8] This relationship was pointed out and more of it advocated by Professor George S. Counts in an article, "What Is a School of Education?" in the *Teachers College Record* for April, 1929.

duty of faculty and staff to give them coöperation so that they will have intelligent conceptions of public education and become helpful critics of education. Over a period of years, as a result of this practice, there will be in New York and elsewhere in responsible newspaper positions men and women who can write of education interestingly and accurately. At the end of a semester spent in covering Teachers College most of these young men and women know more about education than many of the seasoned veterans on the staff of the metropolitan dailies.[9] As new reporters come to this college every semester or two they should be shown courtesy. They should receive explanations of our various and frequently conflicting ideas and practices. And with them faculty and staff must have patience. It is a professional and patriotic obligation to help them learn about education—quite as much an obligation as it is to train principals, superintendents, and teachers. That they may become harsh critics of the College, in some instances, is no reason for failing to meet this obligation. Many who come as students become harsh critics, too; and such critics may be sources of real help to the College in overcoming its faults and failures.

Teachers College is rich in news. As a creator of news of national interest and of national significance it can take its place among the important news sources of New York City. It has not yet done so, but within the past year it has begun to do so. From July to December, 1927, there appeared in the New York City papers approximately 300 column inches of space devoted to stories about Teachers College; from July to December, 1928, there appeared 1,300 column inches; and from July to December, 1929, 4,300 column inches.

Quantity here is not a matter of importance. It will be observed, however, that most of this matter which has appeared in the New York papers within the past year has comprised valuable interpretations of ideas and practices in education.[10] With the vast increase in newspaper space received by the College, the number of trifling and

[9] Within the past year those news stories concerning Teachers College that have proved most embarrassing have been written in most instances by staff writers of the newspapers and not by reporters from the School of Journalism.

[10] Specific attention is directed to news articles written by reporters for the New York *Herald Tribune*, New York *Times*, and the New York *World*. Some of these resulted later in requests from magazines that professors quoted in such stories amplify their views in magazine articles. The notable series on developments in education which has appeared in the Sunday *Herald Tribune* during the fall and winter is indicative of what may happen when newspaper writers and editors are familiar with the news value of educational problems and conflicts.

irritating items has increased also. Like freckles on one's face, those stories which one might classify as unfavorable *seem* much more prominent than they really are. Larger understanding of newspaper methods on the part of faculty members and larger understanding of the College by newspaper workers will reduce the number of such trifling and embarrassing items and will increase the number of valuable interpretations. Too keen a sensitiveness to adverse criticism or to ridicule frightens some educators into a state of respectable quiescence and into a caution that may delay fruition of admirable programs. These persons are "publicity shy." They have the "hermit complex."

Good educational publicity should comprise the expression of thoughts that may contribute to the advance of education and to the improvement of human welfare throughout America and the world. Some of these thoughts will question our dearest beliefs, but if the beliefs stand on a basis of truth they can undergo the questioning and the testing; some may be foolish, but through their refutation by our own faculty or staff members or by others, good may come. Loyalty to Teachers College must mean loyalty to the cause which it serves. It can mean nothing else. Acting in the spirit of this larger loyalty it is to be expected that one or two faculty or staff members may stand out against all the rest, if they think the rest are wrong. Such has been and is the case, and it is interesting to observe that, despite the differences of opinion among them, in few institutions will there be found professors and staff members so closely bound together by friendship that is warm and firm and lasting.

It is possible that the nature of its endowments is one reason why Teachers College is a free institution. More than 85 per cent of the current expenses of running the College comes from student fees. Probably no institution in America of anything like the importance of this college is so meagerly endowed. Assuredly, no strings were tied to the gifts of the small group of benefactors who gave generously and solely in the hope and expectation that through Teachers College education of children in this and other countries would be increased and the level of human happiness correspondingly raised. Their expectation has been and is being realized. No great publicity campaigns, conducted by expert drive leaders, brought to the College

the endowments it does have. Nothing brought them but the inspiration and faith and hope which characterized the givers. If Teachers College is to have a larger endowment it will have it, I predict, as it has had endowments in the past. It will come generously, and in the spirit of modesty, from men and women who believe that through this College the lives of millions of children can be affected to bring throughout this country and the whole world an increase in human welfare and happiness.

Let Teachers College reveal itself as it is, with all the differences of opinion and the conflict of ideas that always must characterize the struggle for new truths. From this picture—and it will necessarily be a changing picture—through free contacts with the press millions of men and women will come to know the College as an institution devoted to the improvement of education.

Sir James Jeans [11] lets a column the height of Cleopatra's Needle represent the time that the world has existed. Place a penny and a postage stamp on top of this column, he says, and you have a measure of the period during which man has existed on the earth. The penny represents the period during which man was uncivilized. The postage stamp represents the history of civilization to date. Lay postage stamps on that until you have a column as high as Mont Blanc, and you have a measure of the vast future, with all its possibilities, that mankind may achieve and enjoy until the earth becomes uninhabitable. Science in general, as we know it, is in its early infancy. Only within the past twenty-five or thirty years has education approximated a science. It is to the credit of Teachers College that it, perhaps more than any single institution, began to make of education a science and has made possible untold benefits for millions of children and for millions who are yet to be.

Whether the vast future will reveal a world increasingly better, a world in which every life will be a glorious adventure, depends largely on education. Advances in education still depend in no small measure on Teachers College and other institutions serving the same end. America cannot know too much about significant activities going forward at these institutions—not for the glory of such institutions as such but for the beneficial results that such widespread knowledge may bring.

[11] In *The Universe Around Us* (Macmillan Company).

So far as newspaper publicity is concerned, we must take conditions as we find them. The newspapers, like ourselves, may not satisfy us entirely, but as comprising another educational factor we must give them, if they ask it, our whole-hearted coöperation. We must recognize the conditions that shape their existence.

There are a few facts it is well for every educator to remember. First of all, as the reader may verify by looking at to-day's or any day's newspaper, news is made by conflict, just as great dramas and novels are made by conflict.[12] News is made by interest, just as dramas and novels are made by interest. Conflict comes first because it is the basis of interest.

Conflict of ideas in fields scientific, moral, political, social, economic, and, to a less extent, educational, is the basis of much news.[13] Many schools and colleges, however, are afraid of conflict of ideas; but not Teachers College. Here we have the reason why Teachers College, with its traditional adherence to the basic principles of science and democracy, is inherently and potentially a richer news source than most colleges. (Here we have also the reason why some colleges, afraid of new or different ideas, sponsor gladiatorial football contests. These furnish the conflict element needed for newspaper publicity.)[14]

Newspapers, as business institutions, are in competition, as nearly all business institutions in a democracy are in competition. Because of this competition they must print that which is interesting and must

[12] All professional politicians and those who would deal with the press to attain specific ends are thoroughly familiar with this fact. Many such persons create a conflict simply to obtain publicity. This is a common practice known to any news-writer who has covered a court house, a city hall, or a legislature, or who has reported a political campaign. The ethics of this practice are open to question. Not infrequently a politician will see to it that he is made the victim of an unjust attack so that he will get the sympathy and the votes of the populace. And not infrequently, if such a person is attacked he will not deny the report in the papers, for the very denial would give further publicity to the ugly facts or alleged facts, news of which he does not want spread. Astute politicians know when to let issues drop. They know that, by withholding public comment, controversy involving these matters will tend to decrease. Thus they may be saved from embarrassment or ridicule.

[13] Conflict in its broadest sense is meant here. It implies all manner of physical conflicts, ranging from fights between officers of the law and outlaws to amateur and professional athletic matches. It implies all manner of contrasts between the old and the new in manners, morals, dress, economic conditions, transportation, communication, entertainment, music, literature, art, and education. It implies the differences of opinion which are part of the constant tendencies of mores to remain unchanged and to change. It implies all manner of contests of wits found in love, in war, in law, in business competition. It implies the struggle of scientists, explorers, and inventors to conquer the unknown. In any of its myriad forms conflict, if made understandable and therefore interesting, is news.

[14] W. H. Cowley, writing in the *Journal of Higher Education* for January, 1930, cites the Carnegie Foundation bulletin on college athletics of October 24, 1929, as indicating that one of the great evils in college football lies in the newspaper exploitation of football stars. Mr. Cowley, however, fails to emphasize the fact that a number of colleges assist this exploitation by having press agents whose efforts are devoted to furnishing newspapers with information about football games, players, and coaches.

give preference to that which they consider most interesting. News of education seldom will be printed unless it is interesting to large numbers of readers. A great majority of these readers are not academic minded, they do not understand technical words, they do not follow long and carefully arranged statements. Brevity and simplicity of expression are essential. Every news story that goes to an editor's desk is in competition with every other story. Only a few are printed. Newspapers no more present complete pictures in any one issue than college professors reveal their philosophies in any one lecture. They are revealers of partial and recurring pictures—both the newspapers and the professors. Many a professor is delighted if a student shows that he has absorbed 95 per cent of what the professor said in a lecture; but the same professor is irritated and displeased if a newspaper reporter makes an error of 5 per cent in his interview with the professor. As much generosity should be shown reporters as is shown students. Newspaper workers are human. They are willing to be told they are wrong if they are told courteously; they are likely to show the same reaction that most people show if told in words of anger. Some newspapers are guilty of actions that are wrong. So are some professors. In general both newspaper workers and educators have the same ideals, pretty much the same intelligence, and are subject to the same human reactions. Newspapers, by reason of the intense competition which characterizes them, must work at top speed. Professors may work more leisurely, but if they deal with newspapers they may have to accept the "top speed" factor with its virtues and its limitations.

In Teachers College there is no publicity bureau. Sometimes the Bureau of Educational Service is referred to as such, but mistakenly. The Bureau does attempt to give to newspapers courteous coöperation, but this same coöperation is given by many faculty and staff members. As others come to recognize responsibility, on patriotic, scientific, and educational grounds, for coöperation with the press, such coöperation will tend to become general at Teachers College.

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PUBLICITY

By THOMAS E. BENNER

Visiting Professor of Education, Teachers College

COLLEGES and universities are beginning to understand and to meet a problem with which business men have always been much concerned—the problem of protecting and increasing the good will toward themselves of their constituencies. Thirty-six (or 75 per cent) of the 48 colleges and universities supported by public funds and 51 (or 72 per cent) of the 71 privately supported who replied to a recent questionnaire employ an official specifically responsible for the betterment of the institution's public relations.

Business has long since learned that good will is created and kept alive not by what the institution to which it relates *actually* is and does, but by the *pictures* in the public mind of what it is and does. Though conspicuous deficiency in the services expected by the public tends in the long run to make these pictures less agreeable, just as conspicuous efficiency tends to make them more agreeable, the modern business organization prefers not to rely on mere tendencies.

"Publicity" and "propaganda," the tools used by business for moulding public opinion and creating good will, have too often been devoted to the substitution in the minds of a constituency of one false picture for another. The college or university, however, is interested in using them to substitute true pictures for false. As the president of a privately endowed eastern university says, apropos of the questionnaire already referred to:

"The proclivity of the press to play up the 'country club' aspect of college life must be counterbalanced by the supplying of information concerning the fundamental educational phase which, in these days of emphasis on extra-curricular activities, is apt to be neglected."

Two other presidents commenting on this questionnaire reveal interestingly the conflict they are experiencing between the necessity for publicity and the fear that its use may not be quite respectable. One, the president of a privately supported college, says:

"The institution itself, its several activities, and the part its graduates take in the communities in which they settle give the best expression of the college to the public and all that we feel is needed or advisable." Yet in his reply to specific questions he reports that the college has a news bureau, conducted by students, and has employed for an endowment campaign one of the large commercial organizations specializing in this field.

The other, president of a state-supported institution, says:

"Anything that has the semblance of developing and maintaining popular good will toward the university should not be needed and I think on the whole is not desirable. Good will in the public mind must come through effective service to students and to adults through all the forms of service which the . . . university is prepared to render. I do not think that the employment of a special man to point out to the people the value of those services is either wise or necessary." This institution employs a publicity officer and sends to prospective students in the area which it serves beautifully illustrated booklets which compare favorably with some of the direct-by-mail advertising of the bigger business houses of the country. An attractive page in one of these booklets bears the caption: "Athletic outlook good at ——."

The questionnaire, sent to a list of more than three hundred colleges and universities, read as follows:

Will you be so kind as to indicate what officer or officers (indicating in each case by official title) perform the functions listed below as means of improving the public relations of the college or university?

I. Continuing survey of public opinion affecting your institution, including:
   A. Preparation, for information of president, of summaries of articles of interest to institution from daily and weekly press ( )
   B. Studies, made at request of president and for his information, of public opinion on questions of interest to institution ( )

II. Interpretation of institution to public, including:
   A. Preparation and maintenance of publicity reference service, of the newspaper "morgue type" ..... ( )
   B. Preparation and maintenance of publicity calendar ..... ( )
   C. Newspaper publicity:
      1. Supervision of preparation of news items for press..... ( )
      2. Actual preparation of news items for press..... ( )

D. Paid advertising:
   1. Supervision of preparation of advertising copy for institution or its departments..... ( )
   2. Actual preparation of such advertising..... ( )
E. Supervision of lay-out and typography of institutional printed matter, such as catalogues, reports, etc..... ( )
F. Supervision of preparation of posters, placards, and billboard announcements ..... ( )
G. Motion picture publicity:
   1. Supervision of preparation ..... ( )
   2. Promotion of use of publicity films, when completed... ( )
H. Exhibits and displays:
   1. Supervision of preparation ..... ( )
   2. Promotion of use of exhibits and displays when completed ..... ( )
I. Spoken publicity:
   1. Supervision of speakers' bureau ..... ( )
   2. Supervision of radio programs ..... ( )
J. Supervision, as agent of president, of programs for special occasions, such as:
   1. Pageants ..... ( )
   2. Anniversaries ..... ( )
   3. Memorials ..... ( )
K. Supervision, as agent of president, of institutional campaigns, such as:
   1. Campaigns for endowment, etc. ..... ( )
   2. Campaigns for legislative support (in state-supported institutions) ..... ( )
   3. Campaigns for support from other appropriating bodies. ( )

Tables I and II indicate the replies of those institutions reporting the employment of an official directly responsible for publicity. The colleges and universities have been placed in the order of their size in terms of enrollment. Each line represents a single institution.

Other activities which should be the responsibility of the public relations officer, some of them at least as important as many of those included in these tabulations, were left out of the questionnaire. It was felt that they would be best indicated by the institution's conception of a public relations program as revealed in a requested letter of critical comment, in requested samples of printed public relations

TABLE I

Privately Supported Colleges and Universities Reporting Employment of Official Directly Responsible for Publicity

Each line represents an institution. When a single publicity officer is employed his reported duties are designated by x. Where a second, apparently more or less independent, publicity officer is employed his reported duties are designated by x′. Duties regularly performed by an official other than the publicity officer or the president are designated by s.

Size of Institution	News Summaries	Studies of Public Opinion	Publicity "Morgue"	Publicity Calendar	News—Supervision	News—Preparation	Adv.—Supervision	Adv.—Preparation	Printed Matter	Posters, Placards	Motion Pictures—Supervision	Motion Pictures—Promotion	Exhibits—Supervision	Exhibits—Promotion	Speakers Bureau	Radio Programs	Pageants	Anniversaries	Memorials	Endowment	Legislature	Other Campaigns
Less than 500 Students	s		s	s	x	x																
	s	s	s	s	x	x	s		s				s									
					s	s			s													
	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x			
			x	x	x	x			x				x									
			x	x	x	x																
	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x						
			s			s			s						s							
					xx′	xx′																
				s	x	x	s	s	s				s	s	s							
500 to 999 Students					x	x	s	x	s				x	x								x
				x	x		x	x	x				x	x	x	x				x		
	s	s	s	s	x	x	x	x	x		s	s	s	s	s					s		
			x		x	x							s	x	x	x						
	x			x	x	x			s	s	x											
	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x					x		x			x		
	x		x		x	x	x	x														
	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x					x	x						
			s	s	x	x	x							x			s			s		
				x	x	x								x								
	x		x	x	x	x		s	s		s											
	x	x	x	x	x	x				s												
						x	s	s														
			x	x	x	x																
				s	x	x																
			x	x		x		x	x		x	s	x	x						s		s

TABLE I—*Continued*

PRIVATELY SUPPORTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
REPORTING EMPLOYMENT OF OFFICIAL DIRECTLY RESPONSIBLE FOR PUBLICITY

Size of Institution	News Summaries	Studies of Public Opinion	Publicity "Morgue"	Publicity Calendar	News—Supervision	News—Preparation	Adv.—Supervision	Adv.—Preparation	Printed Matter	Posters, Placards	Motion Pictures—Supervision	Motion Pictures—Promotion	Exhibits—Supervision	Exhibits—Promotion	Speakers Bureau	Radio Programs	Pageants	Anniversaries	Memorials	Endowment	Legislature	Other Campaigns
1,000 to 1,999 Students	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	s	s	x			x		s				s		
					x	x																
	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x						x		x	s		s
			x	s	s	x	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s		s	s			
					x	x	x	x	s	x			x		s	s		s	s	s		
			x		x	s	x	x	s		s	s	s	s	s							
2,000 or More Students					x	s			s													
		x	s		x	x				x	x	x	x	x		x	s	s	s			
	x	x′	x′	x′	x	x	x	x	s	s				x	x	s						
	x	x	s		x	s								x				x	x			
					x	x	x	x	s				x	x	x							
	x′	x′	x	x′	x′	x	x′	x′					s	s		s						
	x	s	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x								s				
				x	x	x			s	s							x			s		
	s	s	x	x	x	x			s						s							
	x	x				x	s	s	s													
					x	x			s		x	x				x						
	x	s	x		x	x	s	s	s	s			s	s	s	s				s		
					x	x	x	x	x							s		s	s			
			x	x	x	x																
	x		x	x	x	x	s	s	s	s	x	x	x	x	s	s	s	s	s			

TABLE II*

STATE-SUPPORTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
REPORTING EMPLOYMENT OF OFFICIAL DIRECTLY RESPONSIBLE FOR PUBLICITY

Size of Institution	News Summaries	Studies of Public Opinion	Publicity "Morgue"	Publicity Calendar	News—Supervision	News—Preparation	Adv.—Supervision	Adv.—Preparation	Printed Matter	Posters, Placards	Motion Pictures—Supervision	Motion Pictures—Promotion	Exhibits—Supervision	Exhibits—Promotion	Speakers Bureau	Radio Programs	Pageants	Anniversaries	Memorials	Endowment	Legislature	Other Campaigns
Less than 1,000 Students	x	x	x	x	x	s	x		x													
			s	s		x			s		s	s			s	s						
					x	s	x								s	s						
			x	x		x		x							x							
1,000 to 1,999 Students	x					x			x	x	x	x	s	s	s	s						
	x	x			x	x										s						
					x	x			x													
			s	s	x	x	x	x	x						s	x						
	s	s	x	x	x	s																
	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	s	s	s	s	x	s						
				s	x	x			s						s	s						
	s				x	x			s						s							
					x	x																
					x	x			x						s							
			x	s		x	s	s		s	s	s	s	s	s	s						
			x			x			s			s	s	s	s	x						
					x	x			x						s	x					s	
	x	x		x	x	x			x	x			s	s	x	s						
	s	s	x	x		x	x	x	x	x					x	x						
			x	x	x	x					s	s			s	s						
	x				x	x		x	s						s	s				s		
2,000 or More Students	s	x'		x'	x	x			x	x	x'	x'	x'	x'	x'	x				x'	x'	x'
					x	x			s		x	x										
					x	x	s	s	s	s	s	s			s	s						
	x		x			x			s	s	s	s		s								
					x	s																
	s	s	x	x	x	x'			x	x	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	s			
				s	x	x									s	s	s	s	s			
			x	x	x'	x									s	s				x'	x'	x'
	x	s	x		x	x				s	s					s						
	x	x	x	x	x	x			s							s						

*See note accompanying Table I.

TABLE III

Activities Assigned Publicity Officer in More Than 20 Per Cent of the Employing Institutions

Privately Supported Institutions

	Per Cent of Publicity Officers Assigned Each Duty
Actual preparation of news items for press	92%
Supervision of preparation of news items for press	84
Preparation and maintenance of publicity reference service, of the newspaper "morgue" type	51
Preparation and maintenance of publicity calendar	45
Actual preparation of advertising copy for institution or its departments	37
Preparation, for information of president, of summaries of articles of interest to institution from daily and weekly press	35
Supervision of preparation of advertising for institution or its departments	29
Promotion of use of exhibits and displays when completed	25
Supervision of preparation of exhibits and displays	24
Supervision of lay-out and typography of institutional printed matter	24

State-Supported Institutions

	Per Cent of Publicity Officers Assigned Each Duty
Actual preparation of news items for press	89%
Supervision of preparation of news items for press	72
Preparation and maintenance of publicity reference service of the newspaper "morgue" type	36
Preparation and maintenance of publicity calendar	31
Supervision of lay-out and typography of institutional printed matter	31
Preparation, for information of president, of summaries of articles of interest to institution from daily and weekly press	28

materials, and in the data given in the tables presented here. In the case of none of the institutions represented in this study was there found evidence of a public relations program comparable to those now common in the business world.

As far as the reporting institutions are concerned the publicity officer is in most cases only a gatherer, writer, and distributor of college or university news. This is well brought out by the tabulation (Table III) of those activities assigned him in more than 20 per cent of the employing institutions.

An institution lives and grows when it performs a recognized service in meeting a recognized need. Failure to recognize the need by the social group to which the institution is responsible results in judgment that the institution is superfluous. Failure to recognize the service results in judgment that the institution is inefficient.

If this analysis be sound, it implies that universities should deliberately make explicit continuously and in every possible way their several aims and the ways in which they are seeking to realize them. Their constituencies would thus be enabled with increasing intelligence to appraise the honesty and adequacy of the aims expressed and the extent of their realization.

The president is inescapably responsible to his board of trustees for the performance of this task of constantly improving the public relations of his institution. In the smaller colleges and universities he may have to perform much of it personally; in the larger colleges he may have the assistance of a trained public relations officer. In either case the social need for this part of his program should make unnecessary any apologies for undertaking it.

The conception of the college or university publicity officer as merely a newspaper man is undoubtedly already changing. The "standards of practice" of the American Association of College News Bureaus give striking evidence of that fact. Eventually he will become the liaison officer between the college or university and its constituency, directly responsible to the president. This implies special knowledge of the groups to be brought together and of the techniques which have been developed in the business world for reaching and for interpreting public opinion.

TOWARDS FUNCTIONAL USES OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN SCHOOL EDUCATIONS

By DAVID SNEDDEN
Professor of Education, Teachers College

THE adage "Be not the first by whom the new is tried" makes little appeal to progressive American educators. The last few years have witnessed mushroom-like growths of "the social studies." We even find programs of social studies for kindergarten schools. But the very wealth of materials available in the social studies makes it probable that most of them will at first be used sentimentally and fruitlessly in school educations. Even policy-makers, to say nothing of busy teachers, have found it easier to take on faith the "functional values" of most studies than to undertake the arduous and as yet uncertain labor of trying to discriminate really functional means in terms of clearly defined ends set to be achieved.

We know little, and we debate endlessly, about the actual functionings of such old and tried studies as English grammar, algebra, and Latin. How much less must we be expected to have mastered in the way of reliable guiding knowledge as to the possible *uses* in civilized societies of school administered social studies?

The following pages present in much condensed form a variety of analyses, first of the social studies themselves, and then of their possible siftings towards really functional extracts. Since we possess as yet little scientific knowledge as to educational values in this field (or any other for that matter), the reader is invited to consider the findings submitted herewith as a series of more or less debatable postulates (if he can so accept them) and hypotheses.

I. WHAT ARE SOCIAL STUDIES?

By social studies are meant all those in which the central interest is found in the collective activities of human beings—collective activ-

ities ranging from those of families, clans, neighborhoods, clubs, and gangs to those of cities, nations, groups of nations, denominations, federations, and the like.

Social studies are *not* language studies, natural science studies, industrial arts studies, agricultural arts studies, household or commercial arts studies, fine arts studies, health conservation studies, thrift studies, physical sports studies, mental science studies, or vocation-preparatory studies.

Social studies *are*, or usually will be, human histories of hundreds of times, places, and conditions; primitive anthropologies of a score of kinds; contemporary social geographies of near or distant peoples and of the conditions making them what they are; economics; politics; "familistics"; "religionistics"; "coterieistics"; civics; social problems; problems of democracy; dependency; ethnologies; and others still in process of formation, and not even named, such the sixth, seventh, and eighth groups given above.

Nature geography, natural geography, physical geography, or physiography are not social studies—though some materials from them, as from all other non-social studies, can be incorporated into social studies.

Some biographies, *some* dramas, *some* travel books, *some* poems, *some* works of fiction, *some* essays are *very much* social studies—since they describe, interpret, evaluate or help to reform, collective activities and relationship of human beings; *others* of these classes of human products are *only slightly* social studies—since they deal with natural objects or human beings in isolation, or confine themselves to *unique general* situations.

II. THE WEALTH OF SOCIAL STUDIES

As are the sands of the seashore for number are the topics, themes, courses, books, encyclopedias, and researches which may be organized in and about the social studies.

Millions of pages of histories have already been written; and millions more remain to be written. Volumes of social geography have been or can be written about Zulus, Navajos, Londoners, Russians, coal-miners, oyster-fishermen, Mohammedans, American tourists in Europe, frontiersmen in America, hoboes, millionaires, makers of cotton cloth, or recent Italian immigrants.

The economics of iron-mining, of range-cattle growing, of coffee production, of trans-Atlantic trade, of fruit consumption, of national banking, and of stock speculation are but samples of the thousands of topics steadily demanding research and elucidation in economics.

Politics, one of the most comprehensive of all the social sciences, has likewise its endless wealth of materials—politics of village communities, of international relations, of government controls of industry, of civil service for government work, of increased democracy, of suffrage, of prohibition, of public education. (Of course we are speaking of the great science of human government, not of the shameful arts which men now often miscall "politics.")

Then, too, "civics"—"that department of political science which deals with the rights and duties of the citizen," the coöperative member of political groups—that also has a potential range of endless leagues, and most of all amongst those peoples who are trying to distribute suffrage and other rights and privileges of coöperative sharing in government among millions, with all the dangers of thereby lowering efficiency and giving rein to herd impulse.

The other social sciences, some partly shaped and some still inchoate, are likewise of enormous scope. Anthropological studies multiply. Archaeology and ethnology fill yards of shelves. Eugenics and ecology have their many journals and hundreds of researchers. Scores of volumes appear yearly on family life, religions, gang life, and dozens of other forms of social activities.

Hence endless embarrassments of riches for educators. There is only one multiplication table to be learned, three or four alphabets, and the spelling of a couple of thousand words.

But of all the thousands of histories—of Denmark and China, of Maine and Texas, of 1763 and 1918—which are most important? Of ten thousand social problems, which are most significant—for study at eight years of age or eighteen?

III. CAN CHILDREN LEARN FROM THE SOCIAL STUDIES?

We are often asked: Can high school students *learn* economics? Can sociology be *adapted* to ninth grades?

Intrinsically, these questions are as absurd as would be questions whether: children of ten can learn mathematics; or children of four music.

In a fundamental sense, children of three not only *can* learn some physics, but they are always learning it, whether they go to school or not. Of course children of fourteen can readily learn *some* economics—as they have indeed already learned much, whether they have ever been to school or not. On the other hand, there is much of economics, just as there is much of physics, for the comprehension of which college seniors commonly have neither native ability nor apperceptive foundations.

There are many histories, as description, interpretation or evaluation, for which children of eight are commonly quite ready—just as there are others which are too remote, involved, or abstract for ordinary minds at twenty-five.

Every natural science and social science, just as every history, language, fine art, and vocation, has certain concrete, easily appreciated and readily interpreted data, generalization, and process which even young children can grasp. On the other hand, every one of these divisions of human achievement has recondite phases which only special talent, special maturity, and special preparation can make their own—in comprehension or for practice.

IV. WHAT USEFUL RESULTS ARE NOT TO BE EXPECTED FROM THE SOCIAL STUDIES?

No person, we agree, should be induced or even permitted to study anything in schools unless it has *value*—and really worth while, not microscopic, value, at that.

But the *values* of different kinds of school-facilitated learnings are of many kinds—and, unfortunately, not many of these are as yet clearly defined in terms of life's extra-school *values*.

The *value* to a man himself of the careful study of dentistry in a dental college, when he comes to practice, and to be well paid for his practice, of dentistry is fairly apparent.

If certain children in Alabama are enabled, as results of certain kinds of school studies in personal hygiene and social sanitation, to spend their later years without contracting malaria, where others do contract it, then here, too, we can appreciate the *educational values* of such studies.

We teach tables and operations of square measure in schools because we *believe*, though we seldom *know*, that the resulting knowl-

edge and skills will soon or late be *useful*—that is, have substantial *values*—to the learners themselves as well as possibly to their employers, conjugal partners, children, and fellow citizens.

What do we now *know*, as contrasted with *believe* and *hope*, about the *values*, to themselves or to their associates, now or twenty years from now, of studies of topics or themes, factual data or generalizations, from histories, sociologies, political sciences, economic sciences, social geographies, anthropologies, social problems, problems of democracy, and the rest by children under six years of age or by junior high school learners, by learners in primary school or in college?

Truth compels us to answer—"very little indeed." We have aspirations and hopes and faiths that such studies will produce more of healthy kinds of morality, civism, culture than these learners would have without such studies. Occasionally these educational faiths of ours in the studies we most affect are cool, analytical, critical; but most often they are warm, protective, strongly partisan.

But the emotionally dazzled protagonists of the social studies have nothing to be ashamed of in their enthusiasms. Their hearts are right, even if their heads are often silly. Most of their co-workers are in no better state. Nobody *knows* what are the actual educational *values* of Latin—but how much some of us can believe! For how many of the men and women of to-day have their painfully acquired learnings of the differences between object and attribute complements, or of differences between true and bank discount, ever proved valuably functional?

Life is like that—much faith, little knowledge, much feeling, little science, political life, married life, religious life, friendship life—getting grown, getting old, getting ready to pass on—all are built on structures of affection and hope, fear and self-respect, confidence and modesty—all reinforced at a hundred points by *fragments* of tested knowledge and scientific insight.

But let us be as realistic, as critical, as analytical, as scientific as we can without being foolish enough to jettison entirely our fine faiths.

What *kinds* of *values* to *persons* and to societies is it reasonable to expect from the social studies?

Certainly *not* body-building values—the strengths and graces and

endurances which ought to come to good heredity from ample food, sports, sunshine, big-muscle work, and serene rest? Or shall we hope that a theme from Athenian history might add a few inspiring ideals, or that a theme from monastic or American Indian history would serve to suggest horrible examples of what should be avoided in body-building directions?

Have reasonable persons any justification for expecting *hygienic, health-conserving values* from the social studies? Of course self-hypnotized enthusiasts are willing to claim anything and everything. But, appealing to cool common sense, are social study themes of Elizabethan history or the social geography of the Eskimo or the economics of coal mining or the politics of vote buying or the anthropology of fifteenth century Iroquois or the social problems of poverty likely to contribute economically and effectively to the ideals or skills, attitudes or insights essential to keep sound teeth or balanced diets or early resort to curative agents for tubercular infections or self-disciplines for flatfootedness?

Are important *vocational values* to be realized from the social studies? Here much confusion exists, since many uncritical minds include among *vocational values* our appreciations of the conditions and effects of the vocational pursuits of *others* than ourselves.

But true vocational values are realized by *me* only from *my* abilities effectively and for a long period to pursue *my* vocation, to make it productive to the utmost of economic goods, and, concomitantly, so to discharge its responsibilities that my health, morale, personal culture, friendships, civic usefulness, and religious grace shall not be diminished, but, possibly, increased moderately and steadily.

Towards higher and more prolonged efficiencies in most vocations —true *vocational values*—the social studies, except in highly specialized treatments for a few vocations, can hardly be expected to contribute at all—not a little quarter-baked educational opinion to the contrary notwithstanding.

Teachers may have their (professional) vocational ideals somewhat enhanced through history studies—and especially histories of educations. But surely that will not be true of carpenters, housewives, sea captains, or stenographers—or will it?

Of course, for *my* good political citizenship as well as *my* social culture—values to be discussed later—I should know how other

tenths follow their work—wheat growers or fishermen, factory operatives or financiers, novelists and researchers. But those are *not* vocational values for *me*, let it again be asserted positively.

V. WHAT KINDS OF USEFUL RESULTS SHOULD BE EXPECTED FROM SOCIAL STUDIES TOWARDS IMPROVED HUMAN COÖPERATION?

As just intimated, we should *not* look to social studies to give any but the rare person important language, agricultural vocational, hygienic, trade vocational, or many other kinds of valuable learnings products or educational values. Social studies should *not* be expected to be useful means of instructing and training in correct pronunciation, the facile and correct use of the multiplication table, how to prevent teeth from decaying, or how to make money from potato farming.

Can social studies be found, guided learnings from which will help toward happier family life? Towards better political coöperations in efficient governments in time of peace, and coöperative defense of the homeland in time of external danger? Towards those profounder understandings and sympathies with groups and classes of peoples far removed from our own which tend to reduce dislike and friction and to enhance good will and mutually beneficent coöperations? Towards the finer spiritual beliefs, and the more coöperative human social relations, which derive from these beliefs, and all of which we associate with religions at their best?

Here we have suggested examples of great ranges of humanly valuable social relations or coöperative behaviors which can be classified provisionally as conventionalities, decencies, moralities, legalities, civisms, patriotisms, religiousnesses, and the rest. These social behaviors are, of course, imitated in the instinctive socialities of our species, they are forwarded by the thousands of social motivations stimulated by the communal life in which the individual grows, they slowly crystallize into attitudes, ideals, habitual reactions, and other relatively fixed forms and they are illumined by the knowledge, insights, comprehensions, understandings, and wisdoms which we can embrace as social intelligence.

All these "social things of worth," social valuables, may, of course, be meagre, narrow, of such wrong kinds as to give more hurt than help. They may be too clan or guild or class or gang or nation

centered, and, of course, their negatives—hates, fears, seditionnesses, revengefulness, exploitations, immoralities, criminalities—may flourish in some persons' lives like weeds in garden soils.

Now there can be no doubt that social studies can be used to enhance human welfare in these fields of social group coöperation. In a fundamental sense, indeed, such studies *have* been used in all social groups for thousands of centuries to bring our species up to where it now is. For, obviously, all children, all youths, all husbands, all soldiers, all partners, all law-givers, and all chiefs have had somewhere to *learn* suitable social behaviors. But among wise and canny men and women of even hundreds of millennia ago, that learning was seldom left entirely to chance. "Bring up the child in the ways that he should go; and in age he will not depart therefrom." "The Lord is far from the wicked; but he heareth the prayers of the righteous." "The blood-thirsty hate the upright; but the just seek his soul." "For the upright shall dwell in the land, and the perfect shall remain in it."

All nation building has involved incessant teaching of patriotism, whether history books were available or not. All accumulations of property have required constant training of young persons in respect for property rights. All furtherance of personal integrities of girls and women has necessitated constant training of youths and men in ideals and practices of a chivalrous nature. Unless a leader's followers, employees, or other subordinates were trained in loyalties, fidelities, and other forms of coöperativeness their team work must come to naught.

Of course systematized educative procedures can greatly extend the uses of social studies—using anything from controlled practices and observations to appreciative approaches through books and pictures—as *means* to higher coöperations.

But, as will be discussed later, only thoroughgoing pedagogical analyses and eventual research will show professional educators how to use social studies as means of realizing valued ends. Our present practices seem filled with superstitions, blind traditions, futilities. We educators easily surrender our critical understandings to pedagogical mysticisms, partly to ease our consciences and partly to enable our out-reaching enthusiasms to function, even if somewhat speciously.

Towards *social values*, then—*morality values, civic values, religious values*, to use only three major categories—the social studies may be expected abundantly to contribute.

VI. WHAT KINDS OF USEFUL RESULTS SHOULD BE EXPECTED FROM SOCIAL STUDIES TOWARDS ENRICHING PERSONAL EUTHENIC AND SPIRITAL CULTURES?

All human values are in a sense social values, since they minister to men almost hourly living social relationship. But in the foregoing section we include as *social values* only those which markedly enter into the advancement of the coöperative relations of men beyond instinctive and small-group imitatively learned phases. All *other* values are thought of as personal—*my* health, *my* trade, *my* speech, *my* tastes, and *my* fortune.

Of course all *personal values* have social correlates and effects—on my children, my partners, my village associates, my fellow citizens in the state. But these are *derivative* effects—whereas moralities, civisms, and the rest are primary things of a strictly *social* nature.

Two great classes of personal values will here be called the *euthenic cultural* and the *spirital cultural.*

Euthenic cultural values include all those entering into wise and enriching uses of *material* things—clothes, foods, housing, parks, games, personal decorations, savings, some phases of travel, and the like.

Spirital cultural values will here be taken to include what we commonly think of as things of the spirit, of the mind, but from which no directly tangible values to health, material wealth, morality, civism, religiousness, or even bodily comfort derive. Fine interests in "art for its own sake," in literature for the higher satisfactions of the imagination, in science for its satisfying revelations to higher curiosities—all these are of the realm of *spirital cultural* values.

We all know without being told that the social studies are rich in materials to be learned towards the richer spirital values. Nearly all fine minds have always reveled in histories. Nearly every really admirable man to-day takes delight, not only in strictly non-historical literature but in biographies, historical novels, epics, and accounts of exploration and archaeological research which are at least partly history.

We know, too, that large proportions of our more *civilized* men and women have perennial spiritual interests in all that pertains to distant living peoples—the contents of social geography. They read about, hunt up pictures portraying, cherish the art products of, and even strive to travel among Japanese, Norwegians, Australians, and Arabs.

Even the more strictly technical social sciences—sociology, economics, anthropology, eugenics, politics, ethnology, philosophies of religion, international diplomacy, and others—provide much cherished intellectual cultural values to some. Indeed, in their more popular interpretations, as found in magazines, Sunday newspapers, and club-circulating books, these scientific subjects minister to the spiritual interests of millions.

So we may be certain that the social studies can be made greatly to increase their contributions to those tastes, appreciations, and insights of men—the higher aesthetic and intellectual—which most distinguish man from the brutes, and which reach their full fruition in the kinds of men and women whom we like to think of as highly civilized.

To what extent euthenic cultural values are to be derived from the social studies does not now appear. *Perhaps* superior appreciations of furniture, personal decorations, parks, and hygienic housing could be initiated or at points expanded through historical, geographic, sociological, or other studies—but the evidence needs still to be assembled and elucidated.

VII. WHAT ARE SOME ABSURDITIES OR OTHER FOLLIES WHICH ARE STILL PREVALENT WHERE THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE CONCERNED?

American education, as is largely inevitable in a democracy, makes progress considerably through a series of impetuous drives fostered by the devotees of new notions, new fads—or even new panaceas.

These partisans of the novel often succeed in getting enlisted on their side large proportions of really articulate speakers and writers. They even inspire much experimentation. In due time the smoke settles and it is found that some very real gains are to be recorded —though never more than a fraction of those once anticipated by enthusiasts.

Once it was arithmetic and grammar which in elementary schools swept all before them. The Herbartians made geography—and largely *natural* geography at that—the sun of the solar system of the studies. Dewey's followers once claimed all things for the industrial arts. Nature study, too, had its day of glory.

Now it is the social studies around which all others are expected to revolve. A recent writer soberly writes at length on "the problems . . . involved in the acceptance of a social science program for the nursery, kindergarten, and first grade." Nature geography has become only a tail to the kite of social geography. Warm-hearted aspirations of men for international peace are, perhaps, to be realized in part through social studies in elementary school grades. "Social democracy" is set up by high authority as "the ultimate goal in education." Even the "physical educators" now contend that the really most important values to come from sports are "social."

Naturally there must be many absurdities and other follies in our present enthusiasms for the social studies. Naturally, too, opinions will differ greatly as to which elements in the situation are very good sense and which are foolish. For the sake of opening up this phase of our subject, the present writer herewith expresses his interpretations of some of the excessive or otherwise unsound aspirations and practices related to current enthusiasms for more "social" education and the social studies as means.

1. From the standpoint of realistic social values to be realized through educational means, the worst feature of the present situation is omnipresent failure to distinguish the *kinds* of values to be derived from the social studies, which, of course leads to inabilities to determine whether or not the achieved social learnings actually "function."

In a certain first grade children have "Study of the Eskimos; their shelter, food, etc." In the second grade it is "Study of the Indian life." In the fourth grade the "central theme" is "the history of Greek life as represented in the story of the Odyssey." The central theme for the third grade is "The Story of the Growth of Chicago." (The school is in Chicago.)

The theme for the third grade is probably expected to produce civic values—although a man from Mars would probably find it difficult to see how nine-year-olds could get insights or appreciations beyond their home-centered lives which would remain significantly

functional into the years when the terrifying civic responsibilities of coöperating in the political management of Chicago must be met.

Is it expected that the "social studies" topics of the first, second, and fourth grades will function towards civic or moral values of any conceivable importance? These themes or topics are clearly rich in "spirital cultural" values—but why try to develop these in such distant territory during these tender, household, and neighborhood centered years? Is that not nearly as bad as James Mills's ardor in teaching Latin to his three-year-old son, or the misguided enthusiasms of educators a few years ago in teaching arithmetic by the Grubé method to six- and eight-year-olds?

A national authority on the social studies urges that "the content of the school must be constructed out of the very materials of American life—not from academic relics of Victorian precedents. The curriculum must bring children to close grip with the roar and steely clang of industry, with the great integrated structure of American business, and must prepare them in sympathy and tolerance to confront the underlying forces of political and economic life."

All this for "the children"? At what ages? Some of it they can profitably take in towards civic functioning at ages twelve to eighteen—but are not many enthusiasts trying to get much of it in in fourth and fifth grades?

This same authority in one place approves a committee's avowal that "in times past, and too much in the present, school practice has imposed adult forms of thought, feeling, and behavior upon children." But, two pages later, is to be found the thesis: "It is of increasing moment that our educational agencies be organized for the task of bringing our children to a progressive understanding of their responsibility for social progress and of the problems, practices, and institutions of social life." "The chief aim (that is, of considering the merits and deficiencies of American civilization where these involve controversial issues) will not be to reach final solutions for such problems—but to build in the children methods of attacking controversial issues, etc." All that is no "child's play," clearly. May it not work out in practice to be a stifling of childish growths by adult issues and problems?

It was previously suggested that even very young children could be taught—or induced or coerced—to learn some fairly difficult

things from physics, economics, etc. We could easily *force* four-year-olds to learn much arithmetic or handwriting.

But it does not follow that these are optimum adaptations. Unless children find it necessary to leave school early, it may be best that handwriting should not be commenced until eight, or strenuous problem work in arithmetic until nine.

In large proportions of the social studies courses now found in elementary schools the present writer believes there is fully as much prematurity of approaches as there was in old-time arithmetic and grammar. Especially do the "pedagogical ambitions" of course makers in geography for grades below the sixth seem to him preposterous.

But the hot-house forcing of social growths thus attempted is still further complicated by failures to distinguish whether chiefly *civic values* are expected or only *spirital cultural* values.

2. But there are underlying causes of these maladjustments in the basic theories of educators themselves. Nearly all educators still think that the same social geography, history, or civics can produce for learners *both* civic and cultural values.

Doubtless the endless stories and romances of white settler contact with, and ultimate dispossession of, original red Indian occupants of American soil—from Massachusetts Bay and Manhattan Island to California and Oklahoma—are full of potential contributions to the cultural interests of even small children—as witness our picture books and photodrama. But has all this wealth of past history and anthropology any real *civic* significance for the men and women of 1940-70 whom our pupils of to-day will become—any civic significances as ideal, attitude, or insight for those who will undoubtedly wrestle strenuously with civic problems of tariffs, German reparations, control of Pacific trade, relations with Mexico, farm relief, labor and capital, censorship of obscene literature, regulation of use of airways for radio and airplanes, collection of interest on debts from South America, widows' pensions, old age relief, and free college education for all?

Let any well-informed person, using as foundations the problems which to-day greatly perplex, or are so threatening that they should greatly perplex, America's fifty million voters—Mexican immigration, effective control of Giant Power, soft coal mining, race suicide

of economically superior stocks, urbanization, sensational press, rising criminality, and a hundred other categories—list a hundred of what will probably be the major civic problems of 1940–70. Which, if any, of these will contain more than faint echoes of the problems which harried the souls of colonial settlers, nearly brought to ruin the peoples of 1760–1800, and caused the nation during 1830–70 to view the future with many apprehensions?

The enthusiasts for certain kinds of larger civic values from social studies talk much about "nation study" and international peace. But of the sixty or more nations into which the world's population is now divided a bare half dozen—Mexico, the British Empire, Japan, Cuba, China, certainly—have any close or predictable bearing on our future welfare. Dozens of these nations might as well be in Mars so far as any vital or dangerous relations to, or through, us are concerned. Should not our social geography, so far as it aims at civic results—or social intelligence functioning towards better co-operations of men—pick the really essential peoples and give them very full attention?

3. But the worst and most far-reaching of evils in connection with the social studies are of long standing, and are so deeply embedded in pedagogic tradition that reform seems hopeless. This evil is the excessive over-emphasis everywhere placed upon memorization of factual knowledge in histories and geographies.

This evil seems especially to afflict our geography studies from the fifth grade on, and our history studies from the seventh grade through high school. It seems to be an especially serious evil wherever "external examinations" prevail—college entrance, regents, high school entrance, eighth grade diploma, etc.

No serious educator questions, of course, the desirability of having pupils from the third grade on add steadily to their possessions, for the common cultural purposes of reading, ordering appreciations, and the like, of factual knowledges of *some* histories and geographies.

In order to mingle with moderately well-informed persons, to follow daily reading, and to be in possession of certain salients for everyday thinking each adult should *know* as much relatively perhaps about Paris, 1776, Sam Houston, Charlemagne, the Congo, rubber in the East Indies, Vancouver, the French Revolution, Magna

Charta, and Argentina as he knows about seven times nine, how to spell "foreign," and the most frequent uses of "whom."

But is the writer wrong in contending that upper grade geography teaching, whether as programmed in textbooks or printed course outlines, or tested in examinations—all products of others than the too frequently blamed teachers—now calls for five to ten times too much of this factual learning? Or that junior and senior high school history studies are much worse?

4. Some other absurdities seem to be evolving in connection with present enthusiasms for social studies. Some persons want to include arithmetic and English language among the social studies. Some persons contend that the "social values" deriving from physical sports, team games, and the like are more important than the body-building or health conservation values. At times the promotion of musical education has been strongly urged because of the supposedly great moral or other values towards better coöperative living to be derived therefrom.

5. On the other hand, not nearly enough has been made of potentialities in other directions. For persons of less than median intelligence it now seems very probable that the photodrama is a far more active "large group" socializing agency than are schools for learners between ages nine and fifteen—though, of course, so uncontrolled by other than proximate considerations that some of the resulting learnings may be hostile to best patriotisms, international friendlinesses, religious rectitudes, property rights conservations, etc.

Neither has current educational programming made nearly enough of social (moral, civic) educational possibilities of some kinds of literatures—carefully selected, of course, since more literary products are designed to satisfy strictly cultural rather than coöperative social control needs.

VIII. SOME HYPOTHESES AS TO OPTIMUM ADAPTATIONS OF SOCIAL STUDIES TOWARDS REALIZING VALUABLE FUNCTIONINGS

The social studies are immeasurably rich in content: only some portions are of any noteworthy value towards civic or other socially coöperative education; much wider ranges are suitable for cultural education; rarely will the same topics, themes, or other organizations prove simultaneously valuable for purposes of civic and of cultural

educations—these hypotheses are all implicit in the previous sections of this paper. Can others, more explicitly expressed, be added for the guidance of course makers?

Let us use, as a technical device for discussion, the term "theme" to designate any unit of social studies which can be treated in from five to twenty hours of school work—readings, class discussions, recitations, outside study, and all other forms of occupation with learnings. In many cases the term "theme" and the term "topic" may mean nearly the same thing. We can assume that a half-year "course" in history, in social geography, or in a correlated merger of these will embrace from ten to thirty themes.

We need some "teaching unit" analysis like this because of the need for means of "comparative evaluation" of school offerings much smaller than year or semester courses. We must recognize that for any given grade of learners, having in view their environing conditions, there are hundreds of themes which could be offered; and among these surely some are better than others as means to the valuable results to be sought.

Can we next select one hundred themes from the entire range of the social studies—for the present giving no consideration to their difficulty—all of which would seem to us especially rich in a civism-enhancing content of appreciations, ideals, insights, or other valuable types of learning achievements?

Can we next, with the aid of some expert "jury" discussion, allot at least eight and not more than twenty of these themes to each school grade from the fourth to the twelfth, always keeping in view the unprofitableness of forcing or even stimulating interests prematurely?

For those allotted to each grade could we now proceed to derive, again by consolidating subjective valuations of expert educators—never experts in the field of subject matter alone—rankings of these themes—some as excellent, some good, some fair, some poor?

Having done all this, and having procured concrete examples for guidance, we could then proceed to expand the offerings for each grade as much as we might desire. The process would be repeated for cultural values.

Out of the technical processes of trying to discuss educational values, and especially relative values, as here suggested it is predicted, hypothetically, that the following principles will seem valid:

1. Very rarely will social studies themes adapted to grades under the fifth be found which, if well adapted to the social growth stages reached by the pupils of these grades, will probably carry more than a negligible content of civic education. Some themes utilizing idealisms through flag salutes, through good will towards neighbors of alien extraction, and patriotic songs are possible—but probably not many. (A large proportion of the titles of possible "theme topics" for the earlier grades [first six grades] suggested in R. W. Hatch's *Training in Citizenship* [Scribner's] belong to the field of moral, rather than civic, education as here conceived; for example, courtesy, safety first, honesty, "work and study" habits, appropriate dressing, fair play in games, helpfulness, "not chewing gum in public," quiet movement, etc.)

2. An endless wealth of cultural themes suitable to all lower grades can be found—though often their pedagogic adaptation as regards methods of treatment suitable to most effective learning (simple language, vivid illustration, artistic presentation) will prove enormously difficult. It may be that semi-romantic treatments here lead to no harm—as to a degree is inevitable now in our handling of Indian or other distant life themes.

3. The successful use in grades six to twelve of history materials for civic education objectives must entirely disregard the "early to recent" chronological order. In fact it will often be found best to reverse that order and to proceed from recent to remote past by a series of stages.

Reasons for this are to be found in the fact that all really functional civic education, probably, should start with civic needs to be met, civic problems to be solved, when the children of to-day become full-fledged participating coöperators in government which under present American conditions is mainly between ages 21 and 70.

Of course young persons under twenty are citizens—but they may not vote; they usually share hardly at all in real political opinion making or diffusion; and they can do but little towards coöperative maintenance of order, except as they themselves conform to the laws. Persons beyond eighteen can serve as soldiers in time of war, and all too frequently they *break* laws. But until well into mature manhood the young are *followers, conformists* by condition and circumstance in the sphere of coöperative (democratic, republican,

representative) government—which is politics, and sharing in which is civics.

But careful consideration will show that of the civic problems anticipated as likely to confront to-day's children ten to forty years from now, only a few have past history that is really illuminating and helpful. Labor and capital, Mexican immigration, trade relations with Germany, ownership of water power, kindly treatment of criminals, preserving economic rights of Negroes, farmers' subsidies, coöperations with small West Indian and Central American nations, public labor exchanges, control of monopolies, Federal Reserve Bank policies, trade relations with Russia—in how many cases do these have really significant histories (significant to guide our political action of course)—reaching back of the last decade or two?

4. Before "common cultural factual knowledge," especially in fields of geography and history, can be organized into suitable themes and so distributed as to relieve present absurd over-emphasis here, there must somehow be reached a kind of fundamental agreement as to the total range of such types of knowledge, as well-memorized, usable mentally stored content, which should be held as optimum for several classes of learners. For example: What is it reasonable to expect persons finishing school education at or before end of eighth grade to possess as permanent factual knowledge of the rivers of Africa, the outstanding events in American history for the period 1820–1850, the "great dates" and "great personalities" of Europe A.D. 476–1815?

5. Good civic education in grades seven to nine (probably for some years to come much the most favorable area, especially as corrected to include all learners twelve to fifteen years of age, irrespective of grade) will necessitate themes taken from many sources —economics, politics, eugenics, familistics, civics, social geography, social problems with important historical backgrounds, etc.—but rarely to the exhaustive analysis of any field. Is it not certain that all present texts on "civics," "civil government," "community civics," and the like, terribly overdevelop the mechanistic, the structural aspects of government—central and local—as "physiology and hygiene" one overdeveloped anatomical physiology?

6. The most thoroughgoing treatment of intellectual phases of civic education is now found in eleventh and twelfth grades. But it

must never be forgotten that at present from seventy to ninety per cent of our youth never reach these grades—and that the élite who do, would have probably been excellent citizens in the main (by current standards) even if they had had no social studies.

7. Finally, in reference to all the foregoing it needs constant emphasis that *aims, purposes, objectives,* and their conditioning values only are under consideration—and that from such discussions no implications are to be taken as to *methods* or choices of administrative *means* through which such purposes can best be realized. Perhaps correlations of two or many subjects will prove best in some cases. Perhaps "project" of "activity" methods or even "creative" methods will best serve under some conditions.

But it needs constant emphasis also that it is usually silly and futile to spend much time discussing *methods* and *means* until we are in some agreement as to *ends* to be achieved by such methods and means—and whether the ends proposed are really worth achieving.

Unfortunately, there are extant to-day very influential theories of education, some of which especially affect the social studies, which expend endless analysis upon *methods* and in which *purposes* are left vague, ambiguous, hanging in the thin air of easy generalization.

A TEST OF SPEED AND QUALITY IN MANUSCRIPT WRITING AS LEARNED BY ADULTS

By EDITH U. CONARD
Assistant in Kindergarten-First Grade Education, Teachers College
AND ELIZABETH J. OFFERMAN
Assistant County Superintendent, Ottawa County, Ohio

ONE of the most important means of expression and one in which teachers have found difficulty in obtaining satisfactory results with young children is handwriting. So many phases and types of handwriting have arisen during the past hundred years that many teachers have questioned which one is the best to advocate. Recently it has been thought that manuscript writing may solve the difficulties of both teachers and children. Those teachers who have had experience in teaching manuscript writing to young children are convinced of its value. But until a sufficient number of experiments are made to verify scientifically the results obtained in the classroom, many educators will be skeptical.

The aim of the present experiment, which was made during the Summer Session of 1928, at the University of Chicago, under the direction of Dr. Frank N. Freeman, was to find out, by means of motion pictures, how quickly a new motor skill, such as manuscript writing, can be acquired, without loss of speed and quality. As it was impossible at the time to use children, this experiment had to be carried on with adults. However, if an adult whose handwriting is a firmly fixed habit can change his habits of writing, a child can do so even more easily. Careful study was devoted to units of movement of the pen. These were marked on each subject's writing.

HISTORY OF MANUSCRIPT WRITING

Manuscript writing is the name given to a simplified form of handwriting which aims at greater legibility, beauty, and speed by doing

away with the unnecessary joinings of the letters and using instead the plain letters of the Roman alphabet. It is, in effect, a return to the fifteenth century Italian cursive handwriting. It has been found much easier to teach to young children than ordinary writing; the results, especially in the lower grades, are very satisfactory; and its help in the teaching of other subjects has not been negligible.[1]

The number of public and private schools introducing manuscript writing or using it in special classes is steadily increasing. At the time of making this study there were known to be over one hundred schools or school systems in the United States using manuscript writing.

Experience has revealed the following advantages of manuscript writing:

1. Beginners need to familiarize themselves with only one alphabet instead of two when reading and writing are taught at the same time. The amount of time and effort necessary is, therefore, reduced through the use of one alphabet.

2. Young children learn manuscript writing with greater ease and speed than they do other types of writing.

3. The simpler letter forms of manuscript writing reduce physical strain.

4. The greater ease permitted produces not only more rapid learning, but also more beautiful and more accurate writing in a shorter time.

5. Manuscript writing satisfies the young child's desire to write.

6. Longer practice is possible without causing fatigue, displeasure, or dissatisfaction.

7. Therefore, writing can be introduced earlier without the danger of fatigue from premature use of the small muscles of fingers and arms.

8. Business men both in England and in America have voiced their approval of manuscript writing and have established classes for clerical workers who have not learned it in school.

9. Some educators are convinced that manuscript writing has improved spelling, as the mental image of the written form is practically the same as that of the printed form.

10. The simple letter forms have been found to reduce eyestrain.

[1] For historical development see the Preface of *Technique of Manuscript Writing* by Marjorie Wise. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1924.

Among the possible disadvantages considered by those unfamiliar with the writing were the following:

1. Many predicted that manuscript writing would result in a uniform, stereotyped handwriting which would destroy individuality and, by making forgery easy, constitute a grave danger to banking and business. Miss Golds[2] sent a questionnaire and many specimens of manuscript writing to a number of business men. In all cases the replies were enthusiastically in favor of it, the only doubt expressed being in regard to speed. It is asserted that individuality appears in manuscript writing with unfailing certainty. It is also a fact that signatures are not legal in the United States until a person is twenty-one years of age. By this time some distinguishing characteristic will have developed in the handwriting of each individual.

2. The majority of adults of to-day write a running hand; hence it was feared that children taught manuscript writing might have difficulty in reading the writing of others. Experiments point to the fact that older children have no difficulty in reading any handwriting where opportunity is given to interpret various types.

3. The chief criticism directed against this writing was that it would be slow; that through the use of disconnected letters there would be a loss of fluency and speed. Thus far, results of experiments prove that this fear is unfounded. Experiments in our own country are still in progress; England[3] has results based on experiments and records with both younger and older children.

Dr. Kimmins,[4] chief inspector of the London County Council, gave tests to boys from nine to thirteen years old in schools where this writing had been used for some years. The results were compared with his norms for the ordinary handwriting of London children and were found to be greatly to the advantage of manuscript writers. The movement for this kind of handwriting spread so rapidly in the London schools that in a few years it was possible to obtain norms based on speed tests which were administered to more than 15,000 children.

The results of a five-minute speed test given to 9,264 thirteen-year-old girls who had used manuscript writing for two years or more showed that at this age the speed of manuscript and cursive writing

[2] Golds, S. A., *A Guide to Teaching of Manuscript Writing*, Blackie & Sons, 1919.
[3] Winch, W. H., "Print-Script and Cursive Script in Schools," *Forum for Education*, Vol. IV, 1924.
[4] Wise, Marjorie, *Technique of Manuscript Writing*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1924.

was practically the same; but the children who had been doing manuscript writing for three or four years had an advantage in speed.[5] A similar result was obtained by Professor A. I. Gates and Miss Helen Brown of Teachers College.[6]

Among recent experiments in the United States those made in the Horace Mann School in the fourth and fifth grades[7] show that children using manuscript writing not only held their place in quality but made a decided gain in speed, and were only six letters below the norm for speed at the end of three months; while the cursive writers showed very little gain in either speed or quality.

Dr. F. N. Freeman, in his monograph, *The Handwriting Movement,* found that people who acquire great speed in cursive writing are generally rhythmical writers. Probably one reason why speed appears to come naturally to manuscript writers is that words with separate letters are more suitable for rhythm than words with joined letters.

METHODS AND APPARATUS USED IN THE EXPERIMENTS

The method of the experiment was to select a group of four subjects showing varying degrees of quality in handwriting, and to give them definite help in learning manuscript writing. In order to make this selection, the thirty-nine members of the class used in the experiment were asked to write the sentence: "The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog." These papers were scored by two persons three times on both the Ayres and the Thorndike handwriting scales. The range in quality of handwriting was, on the Ayres Scale, 40–90, and on the Thorndike Scale, 11–16. The four subjects who were asked to coöperate had the following scores:

Subject A. 80 Ayres—14 Thorndike
Subject B. 60 Ayres—12 Thorndike
Subject D. 80 Ayres—14 Thorndike
Subject E. 60 Ayres—12 Thorndike

Unfortunately, those in the lower and higher levels of the Ayres Scale (40 and 90) were unable to help.

The four subjects chosen were not familiar with manuscript writ-

[5] Winch, *op. cit.*
[6] Gates, A. I. and Brown, Helen, "Experimental Comparisons of Print-Script and Cursive Writing." *Journal of Educational Research,* June, 1929.
[7] Reeder, E. H., "An Experiment with Manuscript Writing in the Horace Mann School," *Teachers College Record,* November, 1926.

ing. They were given two periods of twenty minutes each, in which to learn about manuscript writing and to practice it. Following is a brief summary of the material that was given.

It was noted that manuscript writing is a simplified type of writing, allowing for individuality. It is a type or model, not a method; it is an old art revived, taken from the type made by the monks in the days before printing presses. The aims in manuscript writing are the same as in other writing—legibility, beauty, and speed, but unnecessary curves, loops, flourishes and joining strokes, because of which present-day forms have deteriorated, are omitted. The letter forms are based on the plain capitals and lower case letters of the old Roman alphabet, a specimen of which is found on the Trajan Column in Rome.

Important points in all good writing are posture, position of writer, manner of holding pen, and placement of paper. Each of these influences the results obtained.

Most strokes consist of movements downward and around, thus eliminating the up strokes and loops which tend to lessen speed. The long joining strokes which spread writing over a page are also eliminated.

Any kind of pen or pencil may be used, but it has been found that a medium soft pencil or a good stub pen gives the best results, as the writer does not then need to exert pressure on his tool. He merely does the work as he thinks. His pen should be held loosely in his hand, between his thumb and index finger, resting on his middle finger. The penholder should touch the hand near the knuckle of the index finger. The hand should rest on the fourth and fifth fingers. The broad edge of the pen should be flat on the paper.

In making strokes the position of the pen and the movements should be as follows:

a. One side movement is from upper right to lower left. The opposite side movement is from upper left to lower right.

b. The vertical movement or stroke is from top to bottom. The horizontal stroke is generally from left to right.

c. The curved strokes are from top to bottom either left or right.

d. Most strokes are made from the top downward and the pen may be lifted when necessary.

e. The thick and thin effect in strokes is made by the width of the pen, not by pressure; therefore there is no difference in stroke width when a pencil or a fine pen is used. The pen is held in the same position throughout.

f. In combining letters in words:

Round letters are spaced very close.
Straight letters are spaced far apart.
Straight and round letters have medium spacing.

g. In combining words in sentences, letters should be bunched to make word units, and equal spaces, the size of w or o, should be left between words.

h. In writing lines of words, the space between lines should be double the height of a small letter so that tall letters like h, l, k, b, d and long letters like g, j, y will not touch when written one under another.

i. Most letter forms which join are connected at the base lines by strokes called foot serifs. These are made merely by sliding the pen forward after the letter is made, so that the bottom or tail of one letter is joined to the beginning of the next. The following letters have foot serifs:

a c d e h i k l m t u x z

These letters have no foot serifs:

b f g j o p q r s v w y

j. Head serifs add to the beauty of the writing but are likely to slacken the speed. They should be small and not overemphasized. They are made by a short stroke at the top of the beginning of the letter. Head serifs act as connecting strokes on the following small letters: i j m n r u v w y. Pencil forms do not have serifs. The letters are separate, but placed close together.

METHOD OF RECORDING HANDWRITING MOVEMENTS

The four subjects were asked to practice manuscript writing whenever possible. Motion pictures were then taken at two separate periods: at the beginning, before there had been any practice, and again after a week had elapsed. During the week each subject was helped individually for about twenty minutes. When the second set of pictures of manuscript writing was taken, a set of pictures of each subject's ordinary writing also was taken for comparison.

The apparatus for taking the pictures was set up in the following manner. The camera was an Urban model fastened overhead vertically on a stand, above the hand of the subject writing. This camera was run by an electric motor taking thirty exposures per second or one foot ten and one-half inches per second. The usual rate in motion pictures is sixteen exposures per foot per second, but in order to get all details of movement, the motor was speeded to nearly double the rate. The shaft of the motor was coupled directly with the shaft of the camera so that one exposure was made during each revolution.

In order to see that each subject wrote within a limited time and to minimize waste of film, an Eastman timer, used by photographers, was placed on the table near the subject and in full view of the

camera so that each exposure showed the time clock. Each set of exposures was limited to eight seconds by the clock. The size of each exposure was three-quarters of an inch, which allowed two hundred and forty exposures, or thirty feet of film. For each set of exposures there were two poses, one for speed, the other for quality, each using fifteen feet of film. As three sets of pictures were made of each subject, four hundred feet of film were allowed for the whole experiment.

The lens of the camera was stopped between F 5½ and 8, and was about four feet above the subject's hand and writing. Before loading the camera it was focused by placing a piece of roughened film on the spot where the exposure was to be made. The ordinary motion picture film was used and was developed by Eastman in the negative form, which was sufficient for this experiment. The standard cost of developing two hundred feet or more is one and one-half cents per foot.

In order to provide for sufficient light, two flaming arc "studio" lamps were used, each giving 9,000 to 10,000 candle power. They were so placed that each side of the hand was illuminated and therefore very few shadows were cast. Reflectors concentrated the light at an angle of 45 degrees.

In order to superimpose later each exposure of the motion pictures, three reference lines were drawn on each paper before the subject wrote for the picture.

The same pen was used throughout—a fountain pen with stub point. Black ink was used because it was found to show up more clearly than blue in photographing.

The procedure was as follows: Each subject was asked to write twice in manuscript writing the phrase: "The quick brown fox." The first time, he was told to write as *fast* as possible in manuscript writing. The motor of the camera was started before the subject began writing. This was planned in order to see the movement of the hand as the subject lifted his pen to begin writing. The signal to start writing was the word "Go." At the end of eight seconds the motor was stopped. The same method and time were used throughout the experiment. The second time, the subject was told to write the same phrase as *well* as possible in manuscript writing.

After the lapse of a week the four subjects again wrote twice in manuscript writing the phrase, "The quick brown fox." As before,

each wrote the first time as quickly as possible; the second time as well as possible. The third time, each wrote the same phrase in his ordinary cursive handwriting. It was originally planned to have two sets of cursive handwriting also, but because of the limited amount of film this was cut to one sample from each subject.

METHOD OF STUDYING THE PICTURES

After the films were developed in the negative, the pictures were projected on a screen and tracings were made of each subject's handwriting in order to study detail of movement.

The apparatus in this case was a regular projection machine, with a cooling bath and attachment placed on the machine, so that one exposure at a time could be turned and studied. Each exposure could be turned conveniently by means of a racket wheel, chain, and weight, attached to the small flywheel on the left side of the driving shaft (on the right side was the handle). One turn of the flywheel exposed one section of the film. Therefore, a person holding the chain could turn one exposure or as many more as he desired at a time. In order to prevent burning, the film was given merely a flood light, as the lamp used was very bright (500 watts). The pictures were thrown on paper tacked to a board, which was so arranged that it could be moved up or down or sideways, to adjust all exposures to the same position.

The method of checking the speed was as follows. After the writing and guide lines of each pose were traced, the film was turned back to the beginning of the records, where the subject made the first stroke of the word. The position of the pen was checked on the first letter stroke by a short line. The film was then turned to the next exposure and after adjusting the board in connection with the guide lines the next movement of the pen was noted and checked. If the pen had not moved, but paused, the number of pauses after the first was noted. This number was placed by the line which gave the position. Air movements, when the pen was raised to go to the next letter, were noted by dots. A crowding of the marking lines on the letter tracings indicated slowing down, and a spread of lines indicated acceleration.

From these charts showing strokes and dots, graphs were made by measuring with biseptors the length of each stroke or the distance between marking lines on the tracing, and placing this length on the vertical of the graph sheet. The number of strokes to a letter was

shown on the horizontal. Since each check or square on the horizontal represented a new exposure, it also represented one-thirtieth of a second, and the total checks gave the time consumed in writing.

DESCRIPTION OF INDIVIDUAL RECORDS

The subjects whose writings were photographed had three sets of poses taken. Pose 1 represented speed when writing as fast as possible, and pose 2 represented quality when writing as well as possible, both taken before practice. Pose 5 represented speed of manuscript writing, and pose 6 quality of manuscript writing, after practice. Pose 3 represented speed, and pose 4, quality, of cursive handwriting. Because of the fact that there was only a limited amount of film, pose 4 was eliminated in some cases.

On the tracings of handwriting which were made from the projections thrown on the screen, each stroke, pause, and air movement was marked. Later, speed curves were plotted from these tracings. The length of each stroke in millimeters was shown by the height of the column. The number of columns represented the length of time in strokes, pauses, and air movements necessary to write the word. The omission of a column represented a pause or a break in movement—indicated by three vertical dots below the base line. Air movements were noted by a row of diagonal dots below the base line.

In order to facilitate the reading of these charts of speed curves, the letters forming the word were placed directly below the number of columns required to write each letter.

A comparison was made of speed and quality of strokes, pauses, and air movements of each subject's writing before and after practice. A second comparison was made of the average of each individual's record in speed and quality with the average of the group records in speed and quality. These records showed both strokes and totals.

For the description of the experiment and statistical results, "quick" was chosen as the typical word written by the four subjects.

Table I shows that the average total number of strokes, pauses, and air movements for subjects A, B, D, and E for the word "quick" before practice was 57.5. The average total of strokes only was 31, with 8.5 average total for pauses and 18 average total for air movements. After practice the average total number of exposures for the word "quick" was 66; for strokes, 26.75; for pauses, 15.75; and for

air movements, 23.5. This shows that there were fewer strokes and more pauses after practice.

In Table III the same results are given in terms of the length of time in seconds required to write the word. Before starting practice in manuscript writing, 1.92 seconds as an average total were required to complete the word in pose 1 (representing speed). Of this time, 1.04 average total seconds were used in the actual making of strokes, or 54 per cent of the total time spent on strokes only. After the practice period in pose 5, 2.2 average total seconds were needed for the same word, of which time .89 average total seconds, or 40 per cent, were used for strokes, showing a decrease in time needed for strokes but an increase in time used in pauses. The same facts were brought out in poses 2 and 6 representing quality. Before practice, 2.4 average total seconds were consumed in writing "quick"; 1.18 average total seconds, or 48 per cent, representing the time for strokes only. After practice, 2.98 average total seconds were used in writing "quick," and 1.11 average total seconds, or 37 per cent, representing the time for strokes only. The added time consumed in movement and pauses was due to the subject's giving more attention to the formation of letters.

TABLE I

SPEED OF FOUR SUBJECTS WRITING MANUSCRIPT

SUBJECT	BEFORE PRACTICE—POSE 1				AFTER PRACTICE—POSE 5			
	Strokes	Pauses	Air Movements	Total	Strokes	Pauses	Air Movements	Total
A	37	4	15	56	33	21	18	72
B	30	17	26	73	29	10	26	65
D	31	12	21	64	24	14	31	69
E	26	1	10	37	21	18	19	58
Total	124	34	72	230	107	63	94	264
Mean	31	8.5	18	57.5	26.75	15.75	23.5	66
% gain in speed					14	85	30	

Subjects A and E were selected for a detailed description.[8] Subject A was given a rating of 80 (Ayres Scale) on his cursive handwriting. Subject E was rated 60. Both showed marked improvement in manuscript writing after the practice period; their cursive handwriting likewise improved noticeably. The graphs for subject E are shown and explained in the following pages.

TABLE II

SPEED OF FOUR SUBJECTS WRITING MANUSCRIPT WHEN CONSIDERING QUALITY

SUBJECT	BEFORE PRACTICE—POSE 2				AFTER PRACTICE—POSE 6			
	Strokes	Pauses	Air Movements	Total	Strokes	Pauses	Air Movements	Total
A	42	15	27	84	35	52	20	107
B	34	28	25	87	*	*	*	
D	36	13	19	68	38	22	21	81
E	30	4	11	45	27	32	21	80
Total	142	60	82	284	100	106	62	268
Mean	35.5	15	20.5	71	33.3	35.3	20.6	89.3
% gain in quality					22	76	23	

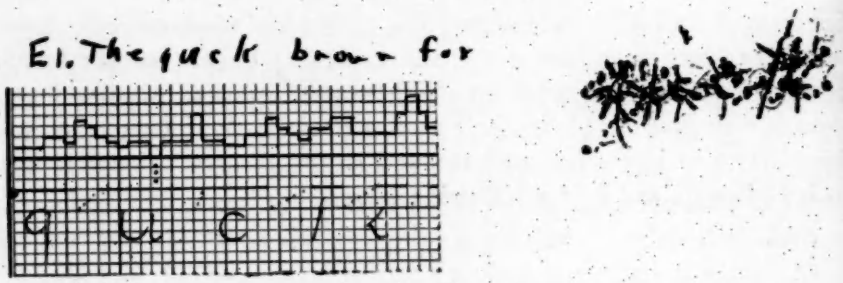
* Not sufficient data to tabulate.

TABLE III

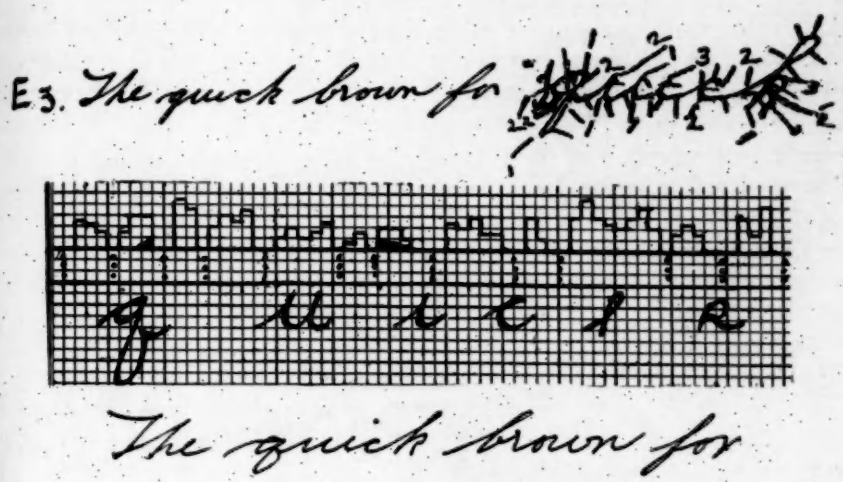
AVERAGE TIME IN SECONDS OF ENTIRE GROUP FOR WRITING "QUICK"

GROUP	BEFORE PRACTICE			AFTER PRACTICE		
	Strokes	Total	Per Cent of Time in Strokes	Strokes	Total	Per Cent of Time in Strokes
Speed: Poses 1 and 5	1.04	1.92	54	.89	2.2	40
Quality: Poses 2 and 6	1.18	2.4	48	1.11	2.98	37

[8] Description of Subject A's manuscript writing omitted, due to limited space.



GRAPHS FOR SUBJECT E



GRAPHS FOR SUBJECT E (*Continued*)

Sample photographed, speed curve of cursive writing and sample written before manuscript writing.

SUBJECT E

The first set of records (represented in E1) shows:

1. The sample written during motion picture.
2. The tracing made of motion picture.
3. The speed curves made for pose 1, Subject E.

These three records represent work written before practice in manuscript writing. The word "quick" was written in twenty-six strokes with one pause and ten air movements. The letter "q" took six-thirtieths of a second to write. The beginning of the letter "q" was made with a slow movement starting at the right top, moving to the left down, and increasing in speed on the straight down stroke. There was then a fast air movement of two-thirtieths of a second before beginning the letter "u." This letter was composed of nine movements (including one pause) which were about equal in length. There was one long air movement between "u" and "c." (The letter "i" was left out in this case.) A stroke the same length as that found in "u" began the "c"; this decreased in speed around the curve and increased in speed around the bottom. Increase was shown in the length of the four air movements between "c" and "k," decreasing as the pen neared the beginning of the letter. The vertical part of "k" was made in three strokes, increasing in speed as the pen went from the top down. There were then three regular air movements to the upper part of the second half of "k," which was made in three strokes, two medium and one fast.

Pose 2 of Subject E represents quality before practice in manuscript writing. This time the word "quick" was written in forty-five thirtieths of a second,

making thirty strokes in actual writing, with four pauses and eleven air movements. There was an increase of pauses, and air movements were more regular between letters. The round part of "q" was formed by three short regular strokes, a pause of one-thirtieth of a second and another slow stroke. The speed increased up to the original starting point of the letter. The down strokes of "q" were slow but increased in speed to the bottom. There was then a slow, short side stroke to finish the letter. Between "q" and "u" there were three air movements, the first long and fast, decreasing in speed as the pen moved up to the beginning of "u." The letter "u," made in five strokes, showed little variation in speed. There were two regular air movements between "u" and "i." The letter "q" was composed of three strokes, also rather uniform in speed, with one pause at the end. Two fast air movements connected "i" and "c." The letter "c" was made with five strokes rather irregular in speed, but increasing toward the end. Two more air movements connected "c" and "k." The first part of "k" was made in three strokes, beginning at medium speed and working to fast. A pause occurred at the bottom before the pen took the two upward movements to finish the second part of "k." This was made in four strokes and a pause. The movements were slow at first and increased in speed toward the bottom.

Pose 5 of Subject E, written after practice with speed in mind, showed a great improvement both in speed and in pauses. The number of strokes in writing "quick" was twenty-one, with eighteen pauses of one-thirtieth of a second and nineteen air movements. This was a decrease in number of strokes and an increase in pauses. The record shows three pauses at the beginning of the letter "q" with six fairly regular strokes in making the letter, ending in two pauses, one-thirtieth of a second each. Three air movements decreasing in speed were found between the "q" and the "u." The letter "u" began with two pauses; the strokes which formed the curved part were slow and regular. There were then two pauses and an increase in speed at the end. At the top of "i" were three air movements, increasing in speed. At the beginning of "i," three pauses occurred with two medium strokes to form the letter. Again two air movements appeared before the beginning of "c." The letter "c" consisted of three pauses at the beginning with three regular strokes for the actual letter formation. There were then five air movements between "c" and "k" with one pause at the beginning of "k," two strokes, medium and fast, and a pause at the end. Four fast air movements connected the two parts of the letter. The second part of the letter contained three strokes—two medium, one fast—and a pause at the end.

Pose 6 of Subject E represents a speed curve written after practice, with quality in mind. The word "quick" consisted of twenty-seven strokes, thirty-two pauses, and twenty-one air movements, showing a great increase in pauses and a decrease in strokes over the previous pose. Five pauses occurred before beginning the letter "q," which was made in eight strokes of varying speed.

There were four air movements between "q" and "u." The letter "u" consisted of rhythmic strokes and pauses; two pauses, two strokes, three pauses, one stroke, an air movement, then four pauses and two more strokes. Two air movements connected "u" and "i." The beginning of "i" had seven pauses, followed by three strokes. The next three air movements were rather irregular in speed. The letter "c" began with six pauses and was made in four regular strokes. Seven irregular strokes connected "c" and "k." At the top of "k" there were two pauses with three strokes on the first half of the letter and a pause at the bottom of the straight part. Four air movements were used to go to the next part of "k," which consisted of two pauses, a stroke, a pause, and two strokes.

Pose 3 of Subject E represents cursive writing and was made in order to compare the two writings. This was written after the subject had been practicing manuscript writing for a week. One interesting result was that the cursive hand had been greatly influenced by the straight strokes of the manuscript hand, and the strokes were more regular in form. The record shows that the word "quick" was made in sixty-six thirtieths of a second. There were forty-three thirtieths of a second in strokes against an average of twenty-three and one-half for speed and twenty-eight and one-half for quality in the previous poses. However, there were twenty-three thirtieths of a second consumed in pauses against nine and one-half thirtieths when considering speed, and eighteen-thirtieths when considering quality in manuscript. The strokes were found, on the whole, to be more quickly made, with the pauses more regularly scattered throughout the whole word. There was, of course, an omission of air movements on account of the joining strokes. The writing shown below the graph of pose 3, subject E, represents E's regular cursive handwriting before learning manuscript.

STATISTICAL RESULTS

The tables compiled in this study were based on the speed curves made from the motion pictures. In making these speed curves two phases were considered—speed and quality—because the aim was to determine how quickly an adult could acquire a new form of handwriting, and, while doing so, how closely he could adhere to his former standards of speed and quality.

Records and tables were made of the manuscript writing of each subject before and after practice. These records were then compared with the average of the group on strokes, pauses, and air movements.

The comparisons made in this study dealt with speed, quality, and total time in seconds, for the group and for the individuals. The results of Table I, representing speed, show that after a week's practice 14 per cent fewer strokes were used by the group than in the

first writing, with a gain of 85 per cent made in the number of pauses over those made the first time.

Table II, representing quality, shows 22 per cent fewer strokes needed by the group in writing the word the second time. A gain of 76 per cent in pauses over the number of pauses in the first writing was seen.

Table III shows the average total time in seconds of the group for writing the word "quick." The average total amount of time for writing the word before practice when writing as fast as possible was 1.92 seconds. The average total time consumed for strokes only was 1.04 seconds, or 54 per cent. After practice the average total time was 2.2 seconds, of which .89 seconds, or 40 per cent, were used for strokes. This shows a gain of 14 per cent in speed for making strokes.

Table III also represents the gains made, when writing as well as possible. The average total length of time required to write "quick" was 2.4 seconds, with 1.18 seconds, or 48 per cent, spent on strokes. After a week's practice the average total time when writing as well as possible was 2.98 seconds, of which 1.11 seconds, or 37 per cent, were used for strokes. This again shows a gain of 11 per cent of less time used when writing as well as possible.

Table IV shows the strokes, pauses, and air movements for poses of subject A in writing the word "quick." Table V shows the same for subject E.

Description of Table IV, Subject A

Subject A in pose 1, where he was told to write as rapidly as possible, wrote the word "quick" with a total of 56 movements, or 37 strokes, 4 pauses, and 15 air movements. In pose 5, taken a week after practice, when he again wrote as rapidly as possible, a total of 72 movements was recorded, or 33 strokes, 21 pauses, and 18 air movements. In poses 2 and 6 he wrote as well as possible. Pose 2 before practice required a total of 84 movements, pose 6 a total of 107 movements. Of these total movements 42 strokes were required for writing the word in pose 2, and 35 strokes in pose 6; in other words 7 strokes less were used after practice, showing greater speed. In pose 2, 15 pauses were made, and in pose 6 there were 52 pauses.

From the results it is seen that subject A made a gain after practice of 10 per cent in fewer strokes necessary to write the work "quick," and a gain of 425 per cent on pauses, when writing for speed. In quality, after practice, he showed a gain of 16⅔ per cent in fewer strokes and 246 per cent gain in pauses.

TABLE IV

STROKES, PAUSES, AND AIR MOVEMENTS FOR POSES OF SUBJECT A WRITING "QUICK"

	Manuscript Writing Before Practice		Cursive Writing		Manuscript Writing After Practice		Mean of Manuscript Writing
	Speed	Quality	Regular		Speed	Quality	
	1	2	3	4*	5	6	Mean of 1, 2, 5, 6
Strokes	37	42	36		33	35	36.75
Pauses	4	15	14		21	52	23
Air Movements	15	27	9		18	20	20
Total	56	84	59		72	107	79.75

* Cursive handwriting omitted.

TABLE V

STROKES, PAUSES, AND AIR MOVEMENTS FOR POSES OF SUBJECT E WRITING "QUICK"

	Manuscript Writing Before Practice		Cursive Writing		Manuscript Writing After Practice		Mean of Manuscript Writing
	Speed	Quality	Regular		Speed	Quality	
	1	2	3	4*	5	6	Mean of 1, 2, 5, 6
Strokes	26	30	42		21	27	26
Pauses	1	4	23		18	32	13.75
Air Movements	10	11	1		19	21	15.25
Total	37	45	66		58	80	55

* Cursive handwriting omitted.

TABLE V. SUBJECT E

Pose 1 of subject E represents speed in writing before practice, and pose 5 represents speed after a week's practice period. In pose 1, subject E used a total of 37 movements for completing the word, divided as follows: 26 strokes, 1 pause, 10 air movements. After practice, subject E used a total of 58 movements—21 strokes, 18 pauses, and 19 air movements.

Poses 2 and 6 represent the quality of writing of subject E before and after practice. In pose 2 a total of 45 movements was recorded, divided as follows: 30 strokes, 4 pauses, and 11 air movements. In pose 6 a total of 80 movements was recorded, of which 27 were strokes, or three less strokes than in pose 2, and 32 pauses, or 28 more pauses than in pose 2.

The results show that subject E made a gain of 19 per cent in fewer strokes and a gain of 1700 per cent in pauses when writing for speed in pose 5. A gain of 10 per cent in fewer strokes and 700 per cent in pauses was made in pose 6 when writing for quality.

GENERAL RESULTS

It was noted that within the short period covered by the experiment, marked improvement was made in both speed and quality of manuscript writing. A noticeable improvement was seen in the work of the entire group—but an outstanding gain was made by subjects A and E. Another interesting result was the improvement shown in their cursive writing.

It should be noted that the following factors condition this study:

1. The subjects coöperating in the experiment were unaccustomed to writing under the camera and other surrounding conditions.
2. The individuals did not allow sufficient time for practice.
3. The amount of time was limited for photographing each pose.
4. Extreme cases, rating Ayres 40 or 90, would probably show more decided results.

CONCLUSIONS

In the foregoing experiment the results after one week's practice show that:

1. There was decided improvement in the time consumed in making strokes in manuscript writing.
2. A marked improvement was made in the number of pauses used in manuscript writing.

3. The number of pauses increased at the beginning and ending of letters.

4. The strokes were more rhythmical in length.

5. The pauses occurred in a more regular order.

6. Each subject improved in both speed and quality.

7. The total for speed in strokes of subjects A and B compared favorably with their total for cursive writing, and subjects E and D were faster in strokes in manuscript writing.

The above findings concerning rhythm and pauses are established facts in the case of good writers in cursive handwriting. The findings herewith indicate that manuscript writing is a type of writing which can be acquired easily and quickly. Hence, if the above gain can be made in a short time with adults, children, whose writing habits are not so well established, should show a more rapid gain.

Another fact worth noting is that the learning of manuscript writing did not destroy the cursive form but, on the contrary, tended to improve the legibility of the original form of writing.

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ABSTRACTS OF RECENT RESEARCH IN COOKERY AND ALLIED SUBJECTS

II. ICE CREAM AND FREEZING

By VICTORIA CARLSSON
Instructor in Household Arts, Teachers College

HISTORY OF ICE CREAM

THE history of ice cream has been very difficult to trace and the data obtained thus far are of variable reliability.

Marco Polo, the great Italian navigator, brought recipes for water and milk ices from Japan and China in the 13th century. [33]

When Catherine de Medici left Italy to go to France (1533) to wed the future king Henry II, she took with her the best chefs available to make sure that she would be supplied with frozen creams and ices. [33]

Sir Walter Scott tells how Saladin, leader of Mohammedan armies, sent a frozen sherbet to Richard the Lion-hearted. [33]

In 1630 ice cream was served in the Café Procopio in Paris, France. [31]

In 1716 Lady Mary Wortley Montagu spoke of ice cream in one of her letters. [31]

In 1769 Elizabeth Raffald published "The Experienced Housekeeper" in London. In it appeared a recipe under the heading "Ice Cream," which included this bit of advice: "Dip your tin in warm water when you turn it out." Mistress Raffald tells how to make an apricot ice also. [31]

In the 18th century ice cream was made in London by a confectioner named Gunton. [22]

In 1774 "cream ices" were known in Paris. It is said that the first ice cream was set before the Duke de Chartres on a hot day, by his chef, who had depicted the duke's coat of arms on the cream.

At an entertainment of Louis XIV of France, the chef placed before the guests a dessert which appeared to be a freshly laid egg.

It was served in a silver gilt cup and was colored like an Easter egg. Before the company had time to recover from their surprise at the novelty of such a dessert, they discovered that it was a sweetmeat, cold as marble. [18]

Clermont, a French cook residing in London, gave instructions for making sweet ices in a book published in 1776. English cookbooks one hundred and fifty years old give recipes for "cream ices" in which cream and milk, sugar, eggs, arrowroot or flour, and flavoring are used. [18]

In 1786 Joseph Crowe of New York advertised his ice cream in the *Post Boy*. He is believed to have been America's first ice cream maker. There is, however, a tradition that the first American ice cream seller was named Hall and that he had his shop in Park Row, at Number 75, when it was called Chatham Street. [31, 18]

It is said that Martha Washington served ice cream at her table. [22] Other reports tell that Dolly Madison introduced it into this country at the president's reception. The story goes that the ice cream freezer was invented by Mrs. Nancy Johnson, wife of a United States naval officer. Ice cream cones made their first appearance at the World's Fair in St. Louis. [22, 19]

In 1851 an attempt was made to manufacture ice cream in wholesale quantities. Jacob Fussell is said to have been the first to manufacture ice cream for wholesale trade in Baltimore. Perry Brazelton, of Mt. Pleasant, Iowa, studied the ice cream business with Fussell and later established a factory in St. Louis. [19] Fussell also opened plants in Baltimore, St. Louis, and Washington for the manufacture of ice cream. [19]

Statistics on ice cream:

OUTPUT OF ICE CREAM IN THE UNITED STATES

YEAR	APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF GALLONS	
1910	100,000,000	
1912	154,000,000	[19]
1915	250,000,000	[22]
1924	300,000,000	
1925	322,000,000	
1926	324,665,000	[41]
1927	334,628,000	[12]
1928	348,048,000	[12]

THE FREEZING PROCESS

Physical Properties of Water. The weight of a cubic centimeter of water at 4° C. is one gram. At this temperature water possesses its maximum density; not only does it expand when heated, but it also expands slightly when cooled. Thus a kilogram of water at 0° C. occupies 1,000.13 cc., or 0.13 cc. more than at 4° C. Water expands on solidification; a kilogram of ice at 0° C. occupies 1,090.83 cc. or 90.7 cc. more than an equal weight of water at the same temperature. The melting of one gram of ice at 0° C. to water at 0° C. causes an absorption of 80 calories. The freezing of water at 0° C. to ice at 0° C. requires the removal of 80 calories. [40]

Freezing Mixtures. The addition of salt to a liquid causes it to freeze at a lower temperature. This explains why salt thrown on ice causes it to melt. In the making of ice cream the addition of salt to ice melts the ice, producing a solution which has a lower freezing point than water. The ice melts, and absorbs heat from the ice cream in the freezer, cooling it until it eventually freezes.

What Proportion of Ice to Salt Is Best in Freezing Ice Cream? A careful study of this subject has revealed that the proportion of eight measures of ice to one measure of salt produces a smoother texture in ice cream. [26]

When Should the Salt Be Added to the Ice? As salt is used to melt ice, and by melting ice absorbs the heat from the ice cream mixture, a complete utilization of the salt is desirable. This can be accomplished by first filling the freezer one-third full of ice and then adding ice and salt in alternate layers. [26] The ice should be fine and evenly chopped, and only coarse salt should be used. [26]

Effect of Decreased Amount of Ice on Freezing Time. The length of time necessary to freeze ice cream increases as the amount of salt used decreases. Three times as much time is required (12 minutes) to freeze one quart of ice cream when a 35 to 1 proportion of ice to salt is used as is required when a 3 to 1 proportion of ice to salt is used. The 8 to 1 proportion requires 5 minutes to freeze 1 quart of ice cream. [26]

What Proportion of Ice to Salt Is Best in Packing Ice Cream? The proportions for packing ice cream are dependent upon the kind of ice cream, the size of the freezer, and the time allowed for ripening. [18] Ice creams and ices with a high sugar content require a

lower temperature to keep them firm, and hence require a larger proportion of salt to ice than a mixture with a lower sugar content. [46] With a one-quart freezer an 8 to 1 proportion of ice to salt is sufficient for as short a time as one hour. With a larger freezer, packed only a short time, a 4 to 1 proportion of ice to salt is advisable. [26]

A GENERAL DISCUSSION OF TEXTURE AND RELATED PROPERTIES

The body and texture of ice cream are usually described as smooth, creamy, velvety, mellow, coarse, grainy, sandy, fluffy, close, or firm. Washburn [48] was the first to differentiate between body and texture of ice cream; the former he referred to as the bulk of the whole, and the latter as the internal structure. The body of ice cream depends upon the type and proportions of the various ingredients present, their chemical make-up, and their physical condition, while the texture depends upon the manner in which these ingredients are built up and held together. [38]

Influence of Viscosity. A certain viscosity or thickening condition of milk and cream is desirable in ice cream making, but if it becomes too great, it offers too much resistance to the incorporation of air. Milk and cream which have aged for 24–48 hours become more viscous. Pasteurization temporarily destroys the viscosity of milk and cream, but this quality may be regained by allowing the milk to stand for twenty-four hours or by homogenizing it. Homogenized cream or milk becomes more viscous. [27] In other words, when milk or cream is subjected to very high pressure each large particle of fat is divided into one-tenth to one-hundredth of its original size. Homogenization is used by commercial ice cream makers, but is not resorted to in the home. It can be taken advantage of by using evaporated milk which has been homogenized in the process of manufacture. [20] The flavor of ice cream made with evaporated milk is different, however, from the flavor of that made with ordinary milk or cream.

Increased viscosity may be brought about by the use of improvers. Their effect is twofold. First, improvers may aid in thickening ice cream by increasing the tendency of the fat to "clump," and by increasing adsorption upon the fat surfaces. Second, they may act upon the milk solids not fat, causing a slight aggregation of the

calcium caseinate particles or a partial coagulation. This action increases the internal resistance, thereby producing a more viscous mixture. [38]

Overrun. Swell or overrun is the amount obtained in excess of the volume of the total mixture put into the freezer. The swell is due to incorporated air, to the expansion of the mixture in freezing [50], and to the proportion of fat, sugar, and gelatine in the mixture. Butter fat has a decided influence on the viscosity of the mixture because fat is more viscous than the water it replaces. The fat content of the ice cream mixture has a greater influence on the percentage of overrun than does the viscosity of the mixture. The maximum overrun is obtained with a mixture containing 10 per cent butter fat. Less than this amount will give a lower overrun and this is also true of an ice cream mixture of above 10 per cent butter fat. [30] Sugar, too, has a decided influence upon the overrun. The overrun increases until as much as 12 per cent of sugar has been added; when more sugar than this is added the overrun decreases rapidly. [37] An ice cream mixture containing a large percentage of serum solids not fat is improved and the overrun is increased by prolonged whipping; but in a mixture with a low serum solid content, prolonged whipping incorporates too much air and the ice cream becomes fluffy and lacks body. [1, 35] The amount of the mixture in the freezer influences the overrun. For the best results the freezer should be only one-half full. [27] Gelatine decidedly decreases the overrun. [38]

Influence of Sugar. The primary function of sugar in ice cream is to sweeten it. However, sugar has a marked influence upon the freezing time, overrun, hardening characteristics, rate of melting, and dipping qualities of ice cream. [14, 37, 38] Its presence in ice cream lowers the freezing point; in other words, it is necessary to supply a lower temperature than is usually resorted to in order to freeze it. Therefore, ice creams and ices with a high sugar content tend to be smoother and softer because they add to the amount of water that remains unfrozen a concentrated sugar syrup. [14, 37, 38]

Corn sugar with a molecular weight one-half that of cane sugar depresses the freezing point to a greater extent. For this reason, it is rarely ever used to supply all the sweetening in ice cream, but one-third of cane sugar may satisfactorily be replaced by corn sugar. [11, 14] Ice creams and ices containing corn sugar melt

more rapidly at room temperature than those made with cane sugar alone. [37, 46, 50]

When honey is used to replace part of the sugar as a sweetener in ice cream, the best flavor and texture are obtained with 13.5 per cent honey and 3.5 per cent cane sugar. Less than 9 per cent honey is not satisfactory and more than 20 per cent imparts a "waxy texture" to ice cream. The sweetening value of honey varies somewhat, but ordinarily 25 to 30 per cent more honey than sugar is needed if the same sweetness is to be maintained. Honey, like corn sugar, lowers the freezing point of the mixture by increasing its sugar content; therefore more time is required to complete the freezing process, and a lower temperature is necessary to maintain the ice cream in a firm condition. Ice cream made with honey melts faster when exposed to room temperature. [46]

In sherbets and ices the situation regarding body and texture is different. Excessive hardness is due to successive crystallization of sugar and ice. The amount of sugar required for ices and sherbets is greater than that for ice cream, because these products contain fruit juices which need sweetening. The amount of sugar needed varies from 25 to 30 per cent, while in uncooked ice cream 12 to 15 per cent is sufficient. [19] Cane sugar is present in ices in a supersaturated solution and will crystallize out. As the sugar crystallizes out the freezing point is raised and ice is formed. This reduces the amount of water present, causing more sugar to crystallize out and in turn more ice to freeze, until the sherbet becomes hard from the surface inward. The ice and sugar crystals are the cause of hardness. This defect may be overcome by using a mixture of corn sugar and cane sugar. The mixture of corn sugar and cane sugar is more soluble than cane sugar alone; therefore it does not become supersaturated and no crystallization takes place. [2] Hardening of ices, however, seems to occur mainly when their surfaces are exposed to the air and especially when their surfaces have been cut into. This type of hardening seldom occurs in sherbets. [2] If a sugar content above 30 per cent is used in ices or sherbets the freezing point will be very low, and in order to keep the unfrozen sugar solution and the flavoring together it becomes necessary to use a stabilizer. This may consist of milk solids, egg albumin, cream, or ice cream, any one of which will increase smoothness. [2]

In the preparation of ices in a mechanical refrigerator it has been found impossible to secure an orange ice entirely free from large ice crystals. An ice may be prepared with only minute crystals resulting if flour is added. An orange ice prepared in this way has a slightly thicker consistency and is lighter in color than the usual orange ice, but the flavor is very good. The method used is similar to the preparation of fondant: a definite amount of cane sugar, corn syrup, water, and flour are boiled until a temperature of 218-220° F. is reached, and then the orange and lemon juice are quickly added to the mixture. The correct proportions of cane sugar and corn sugar are very important. [6]

Sugar also lowers the optimum whipping temperature and prolongs the whipping time. [50] Sugar has a decided influence upon the overrun. [28]

Influence of Fat. The flavor, body, texture, richness, appearance, and keeping qualities of ice cream bear a direct relationship to the fat content. [30, 38] The flavor of ice cream depends upon the proper fat content. A mixture containing 10 to 12 per cent fat appears to give the most palatable ice cream. This ice cream has the most desirable and typical flavor, body, texture, appearance, and richness; and it will not develop defects during storage. A mixture containing 14 per cent cream tasted slightly of butter fat and the consistency was such that the mixture tended to stick to the mouth. [30] There is no direct relationship between the fat content and the hardness of ice cream. [30] The percentage of fat present in ice cream has no effect upon the temperature of the frozen cream. [28] The ability of ice creams to resist melting when exposed to summer temperature is increased with each addition of fat. [30]

The physical state of the fat is also an important consideration. Homogenized cream becomes more viscous and favors the incorporation of air in a finer state of division. It is believed that the condition of the air cells favors smoothness of the resulting product [7], but the size of the air cells cannot be definitely related to texture. [7] Fat prevents the formation of ice crystals by mechanical obstruction. [7]

Influence of Milk Solids Not Fat. The milk solids not fat consist of casein, albumin, milk sugar, and salts. They are usually obtained from milk and cream, evaporated milk, or dried milk. The milk

solids not fat markedly influence the whipping qualities of the mixture by crystallization of lactose, formation of lactic acid, and a partial precipitation of protein solids. Results of investigations indicate, however, that constituents are particularly important when combined with an optimum proportion of fat to the structure and texture. [7] When cane sugar is scored as 100 in sweetness, lactose or milk sugar is given a score of 16 [3] and it is not only less sweet than cane sugar, but also less soluble. The crystals are hard and produce on the tongue a sensation like that produced by sand. [53] All ice creams in the frozen state are supersaturated to lactose, but at this low temperature crystallization of lactose is very slow. [38] The conditions which favor lactose crystal formation are brought about by melting and hardening of the ice cream and by the addition of nuts which act as nuclei for lactose growth. [36]

It is generally known that cream which has been allowed to stand for 24 to 48 hours at 45° F. whips better than fresh cream; this is believed to be due to the development of lactic acid in the cream. [10, 53] The addition of calcium to cream retards whipping. Milk from cows at the end of lactation period is high in calcium; this accounts for the seasonal variation in the whipping qualities of cream. [8, 42, 43] Viscogen, used to increase whipping qualities of cream, when added in quantities sufficient to render the cream alkaline, becomes detrimental instead of beneficial to the whipping qualities. [1]

Results of investigations indicate that in ice cream mixtures containing a large proportion of solids not fat and a smaller amount of fat the products obtained were not smooth, and thus it is inferred that the main function of the protein is not to stabilize the air cells in order to prevent ice crystal formation. But the value of milk solids not fat to the texture of ice cream seems to be dependent upon the combined action of milk fat and milk solids not fat. [7]

A recent survey which includes reports from 331 ice cream manufacturers having an annual production of approximately 50,000,000 gallons of ice cream shows that the milk solids not fat used in ice cream in the United States were obtained from different ingredients as follows: From cream, 12.3 per cent; from whole milk, 23.4 per cent; from skim milk, 4.10 per cent; from sweetened condensed milk, 11.03 per cent; from unsweetened condensed milk, 40.67 per

cent; from dried skim milk, 8.5 per cent. The percentage of dried skim milk used is small, because of the flavor and texture it imparts. It is suggested that the use of spray dried milk which has been forewarmed to 180° F. before drying will give a better flavor than milk which has been forewarmed to 145° F. and roller dried. [51]

Influence of Improvers. Under this heading are placed materials which when added to ice cream improve the body and texture of the finished product, and increase its resistance to melting. The great majority of ice cream improvers are colloids. The improvement in texture is brought about by the formation of a film or membrane around the enmeshed air and the finely divided fat particles, thus restricting the growth of large ice crystals. The most common examples of this type of colloid are starch, flour, egg, milk solids not fat, gelatine, etc. [7, 38] There is also another type of improver which contains coagulating enzymes, such as rennin. These enzymes act upon the protein in the ice cream, bringing about an increased viscosity. [7, 38] To the commercial ice cream maker gelatine is the most important improver. In the preparation of ice cream in the mechanical refrigerator it has been found that when the amount of gelatine or starch is increased to secure a product free from ice crystals, a very decided flavor of each is left in the ice cream. Hence, the use of these improvers in large amounts is undesirable. When the colloid used is flour it not only gives an ice cream of smooth body and texture, but it also produces a palatable ice cream, when a cream of low fat content is used. [6]

Eggs improve the texture of ice cream by increasing its whipping qualities. This is more noticeable in a relatively heavy, slow-freezing mixture which is improved by beating in more air with the addition of egg yolk than it is in mixtures of a low solid content. Egg yolk shortens the freezing time of all freshly made mixtures, irrespective of their composition, and the increase in whipping qualities is in most cases in direct proportion to the amount of egg used. [25]

In commercial ice cream making dried egg yolk in amounts of one per cent increases the whipping properties of ice cream mixtures. Whole dried eggs and egg yolk improve the texture of ice cream, but egg albumin does not. Dried egg yolk impairs the flavor of ice cream slightly, the whole egg injures it more, and egg albumin impairs the flavor to a greater extent. [29]

Manners and Method of Freezing. In addition to the factors already covered, the time and temperature of freezing and the degree of whipping determine to some extent the texture of the finished product. The important point is to control the size of the ice crystals, though the overrun is also affected. Recent investigations emphasize the importance of rapid freezing of ice cream because the faster the water in ice creams and ices is frozen the smaller will be ice crystals formed. [6, 44] The length of time of whipping has a decided influence upon the quality of the ice cream and the amount of overrun. [48, 1] Ice creams high in serum solids become heavy, soggy, and too firm; such mixtures are improved by prolonged whipping, while a mixture low in serum solids becomes fluffy or foamy because of the excessive amount of air incorporated. [1, 19]

Flavor. The flavor of ice cream depends upon proper fat content, freshness of materials used, and combinations of flavors. Cream which has been allowed to stand 24-48 hours produces a better flavor than fresh cream. [27] The addition of small amounts of salt to the ice cream mixture improves the flavor.

Investigations have shown that true vanilla extracts cannot be distinguished from artificial extracts in freshly prepared ice creams, but artificial extracts deteriorate in ice cream during storage. [34] A recent investigation of the effect of storage on vanilla flavors made from combinations of Mexican, Bourbon, and tonka beans with and without the addition of vanillin and coumarin has proved that there is no loss of these flavors in storage of ice cream up to three months. [24] The combination of pure vanilla extract and honey in ice cream gives a decidedly disagreeable blend. [46]

Honey produces a very pleasing flavor in combination with pineapple and a satisfactory flavor with cherry, peach, mint, and tutti-frutti. The best combination has been found when honey is combined with grape nuts in a bisque. Strawberries do not blend well with honey and chocolate obliterates the flavor. [46] The flavor honey imparts to ice cream depends upon the kind of honey used. The most popular honey flavors in ice cream are clover and alfalfa honey. The orange blossom honey gives ice cream a mild yet pleasant flavor. Buckwheat honey gives a caramel color and a sorghum flavor. Basswood honey produces a minty flavor. The flavors of palmetto, heartsease and sage honeys are rather unpleasant. [46]

Discoloration in ice creams flavored with chocolate is caused by the combination of iron with tannins in alkaline cocoa or chocolate. This discoloration may be obviated by the use of well-tinned cans or special can linings. [8]

THE USE OF FRUIT IN ICE CREAM AND ICES

The use of fruits in ice cream and ices is desirable because fruits contain vitamins, organic acids, and mineral salts. Fruit ices with their low caloric value produce less heat than many other foods, and their natural acidity is thirst-quenching and refreshing. Fresh fruits used in ices and ice cream should be thoroughly ripe in order that they may be broken up during freezing. Fresh avocado ice cream is pale green in color and smooth in texture, and resembles pistachio nut ice cream in its rich, pleasing flavor as well as in appearance. The best results are obtained by grinding the peeled and pitted fruit to a fine paste and adding it, in amounts of 18 per cent of its weight, immediately to unflavored ice cream mixture. Heating it even to 175° F. has been found to injure the flavor seriously. The avocado pulp soon darkens through oxidation if it is allowed to stand. [47]

Fresh fig ice cream possesses an unusually pleasing flavor and good general qualities. The best flavor is obtained from fresh Calimyrna figs when they are ground to medium fineness and cooked from 3 to 4 minutes with sugar, and added in amounts of 15 per cent of their weight to unflavored ice cream. [47]

Fresh persimmon ice cream has a rich golden yellow color, a pronounced but pleasing flavor, and a smooth texture. The fruit is ground to a jam-like consistency, sweetened, and added to unflavored ice cream in amounts of 18-20 per cent of its weight. [47]

Fresh strawberry and raspberry ice creams should contain at least six per cent of their weight of the berries. Raspberry ice cream is improved by the addition of one-half the amount of vanilla usually used in ice cream, while the addition of vanilla to strawberry ice cream very seriously detracts from the natural berry flavor. [47]

Properly prepared and stored cold-pack fruits compare very favorably with fresh fruits for use in ice cream and water ices. Sealed containers are much better than open containers for the storage of cold-pack fruits. [47]

Solid pack, pie-grade canned fruits are most satisfactory for use

in ice creams and ices. Canned figs, in particular, produce an excellent ice cream. Apricots are satisfactory but canned peaches lack flavor. Bartlett pears produce a fairly satisfactory ice cream of a mild flavor. [47]

Preserves and jams are not satisfactory because they are too sweet and too costly. Their high sugar content reduces the freezing point and causes the ice cream to be soft. Concentrates are convenient to store, but they lack flavor and deteriorate very rapidly during storage at room temperature. [47]

Ice creams made with prunes and Muscat raisins are excellent. Other dried fruits are inferior to canned fruits; hence their use is not recommended. [47]

BACTERIAL CONTENT OF ICE CREAM

In ice cream the source of bacteria is the cream used. Pasteurization of the "mix" reduces the bacteria present from 91 to 99 per cent. [21] Homogenization of the "mix" usually causes an increase in the bacterial count. Such an increase is probably due to the breaking up of clumps of bacteria. [21, 15, 16] The aging of the "mix" 15-18 hours at low temperatures does not result in a material increase in the number of bacteria present. By pasteurization at 150° F. for 30 minutes, and by the use of only utensils that have been thoroughly cleaned and steamed it is possible and practical to consistently produce ice cream containing less than 100,000 bacteria per gram. [15, 16, 17]

In a study of 33 producers' samples of brick ice cream which were kept at temperatures of −3° C. to −10° C., it was found that storage at −10° C. or above does not prevent all bacterial growth. [49] The rôle of acidity in relation to bacterial changes induced by freezing was investigated by taking the acidity (pH) of the ice cream and ices and then adding acetic acid or lactic acid to a definite acidity (pH). It was found that increasing the amount of acid present before freezing greatly reduced the bacterial count after freezing. [5] The bacterial count of 21 samples of orange sherbet showed that 10 per cent had less than 200 bacteria per gram; 24 per cent less than 1,000 per gram; 57 per cent less than 5,000 per gram; 76 per cent less than 25,000 per gram; 90 per cent less than 100,000 per gram; and 10 per cent over 100,000 per gram.

[17A] In this investigation the acidity was not considered. Preparation of ice creams in an atmosphere of carbon dioxide does not reduce the bacterial count or improve the texture, flavor, or "standing up" qualities of ice cream. [39]

SOLIDIFIED CARBON DIOXIDE

Solidified carbon dioxide is prepared by reducing the temperature of carbon dioxide gas to 0° C. and applying 38 atmospheres of pressure. At this temperature and pressure it becomes a liquid. The liquid carbon dioxide is sprayed into tanks where the "snow" is gathered and molded under 3,000 pounds of pressure into firm white blocks with a temperature of 141° C. below that of water ice. A small piece of this solid carbon dioxide enclosed in each side of a container or paper carton keeps ice cream perfectly for several hours. [13]

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NEW STUDIES IN EDUCATION

THE LEGAL CONTROL OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EXPENDITURES *

THERE has been a decided trend in the various states to increase the control over matters of school administration. This has been accomplished principally by increased statutory control of the details of school administration, and the delegation of certain important powers of control to the state administrative organization. The nature of this increased central authority, the manner in which it is to be exercised, and its probable effect upon local school administration are matters of concern to students of educational administration.

The legal control of expenditures has usually been quite objective in the cases coming before the courts, and the decisions concerning such matters are numerous. For these reasons it is possible to use the control of the administration of expenditures as a structure upon which certain fundamental principles of legal control are exhibited. The principles of legal control established for the administration of expenditures are applicable, in the main, to other matters of educational administration.

The most important questions with which this study concerns itself are: What legal control shall be exercised? What body shall exercise the legal control? How shall such control be administered? The legislature generally attempts to control important details of school administration by statutory law. It is, however, impossible to adapt statutory law to rapidly changing conditions. Statutes are for the most part quite inflexible, and are seldom complete enough to cover all the details likely to arise in practical administration. The people have generally placed their faith in statutory regulation because of their fear of centralized control. Among the people and the legislatures there is still only a hazy conception of the proper provinces of statutory law and administrative regulation.

The consideration in this study of the principles involved in the control of expenditures may aid in making a proper division of powers between the legislature and the administrative organizations. The inadequacy of a general law to do more than establish general policies in our complex society is becoming more evident every day. It seems that the legislatures might more wisely spend their time and thought upon the making of specific policies, leaving the details of practical application to bodies more expert in the details of particular types of administration.

It is obvious that if administrative bodies are to be given increased powers, certain safeguards must be set up to

* By Ralph Yakel, Ph.D., Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education No. 388.

maintain efficient and fair administration. This study elaborates upon legal safeguards which will insure a high type of administration.

IMPORTANT LEGAL CONTROLS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

In the field specifically related to the legal control of the administration of expenditures, this study has shown and elaborated upon some of the most important and fundamental principles as developed by the law. The following are illustrative of the type of such legal principles brought to the readers' attention:

1. A state legislature may enact practically any law it may desire to control the purposes and policies for which public school funds may be expended. The only limitations are constitutional ones.

2. School districts are quasi-corporations as defined by the courts or most of the states. Such corporations have only the power specifically and definitely granted to them, or necessarily implied. School laws must, therefore, be detailed.

3. Constitutional provisions have handicapped in many cases the proper administration of expenditures. Under some of the state constitutions it is impossible to establish schools or classes for adults, junior colleges, or even kindergartens, for the reason that some constitutional provisions declare a school to be for pupils of certain ages, thus leaving no opportunity for the courts to aid in the matter.

4. Support is found in the law for the principle of school administration which established that school authorities should be fiscally independent of the city government. The decisions of the courts in states which have made boards of education fiscally dependent generally deny the right of the city to control the purposes or policies of expenditures by the school authorities. Such cities may control the total amount of money to be expended, but the courts will not allow interference in the administration of expenditures.

5. The courts are very jealous of the legislature's control over the administration of contracts made by boards of education. They enforce their mandates strictly. This enforcement requires that statutes upon this subject be written very carefully and with full consideration of each item as to whether it may be more effectively handled by administrative regulation or by statutory control.

6. The courts look askance at attempts of administrative bodies to delegate their powers over expenditures. The legislature can control the body to which it delegates power, but it is difficult to reach those to whom further powers might be delegated. Therefore, in order to delegate power to expend funds to a superintendent of schools or to a business manager, the statute must be very specific and definite and even then may not be upheld in the courts of some of the states.

7. Penalties which are to be inflicted upon school officials who violate the law are much in dispute as to legality and effectiveness. Definite control, fixing of responsibility, and clear definition of rights may remove the need for many penalties. Penalties will usually be strictly enforced by the courts against those who willfully violate the law.

8. Increased public participation in matters of school expenditures seems desirable from the standpoint of our theory of democratic institutions.

A code for the control of public school expenditures is suggested at the close of the study. The code presents statutory provisions embodying the author's findings.

A STUDY OF PROBLEM MATERIAL IN HIGH SCHOOL ALGEBRA *

THE purpose of this study is to assemble a list of five hundred of the best algebra problems that are available at the present time, the selection being based on the factors, *genuineness, importance,* and *interest.* An effort has been made to determine the reactions of experienced teachers of algebra and of high school pupils to algebra problems, with reference to these factors. It is intended that these reactions shall serve as a guide in the further choice of problem material in high school algebra.

PROCEDURE

From a list of 3,000 problems contributed by a group of 500 experienced teachers of algebra, 1,300 problems were selected as the basis of this study. The 1,300 selected problems were rated by a similar group of 500 experienced teachers on a scale of 0 to 10 with reference to *genuineness, importance,* and *interest.* On the basis of these ratings, 200 representative problems were chosen and were sent to selected schools in many parts of the country. Six hundred ninth-year high school pupils ranked these problems according to interest, and were tested to determine the difficulty of them.

The combined data obtained from the above sources were used in a statistical analysis of the relationships existing between the factors, *genuineness, importance, interest,* and *difficulty.* The results obtained from this analysis were used as a basis for the final selection of problems to be included in the thesis, and as a basis for further choice of problem material and for classroom procedure.

FINDINGS

1. *Relationships between Factors.*

A statistical analysis of the relationships between the factors, *genuineness, importance, interest,* and *difficulty,* shows the following facts:

a. The percentage of genuine problems with high estimated interest is 97; that of important problems with high estimated interest is 83.

b. There is practically no correlation between importance and interest shown by pupils ($r = -0.03 \pm 0.04$).

c. The association between interest expressed by the pupil and pupil interest as estimated by the teacher is very slight, as is shown by the contingency coefficient, 0.17, and again by the correlation coefficient, -0.11 with a probable error of 0.05.

d. When a list of problems contains a large percentage of types that are unfamiliar to a pupil, he is likely to show little interest, as the high negative correlation, -0.50 with a probable error of 0.03, indicates. The same list of problems submitted to a group of pupils more familiar with the types receives a higher evaluation ($r = -0.18 \pm 0.06$).

2. *Factors in Problem Selection and Classroom Procedure.*

a. Problems that deal with any kind of material advancement, such as investments, and mensuration, travel, or a combination, are given, by the teacher, first choice in importance.

b. Age, digit, clock, and other puzzle problems are placed low on the scale of importance.

c. Pupils are not interested in a prob-

* By Jesse Jerome Powell, Ph.D. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 405.

lem because of its importance. They like problems that express child activity, and those that issue a definite challenge.

CONCLUSIONS

From a consideration of the above findings, it is evident that the classroom teacher may discover several urgent needs:

1. More discreet choosing of problem material is needed.

2. Finding means of enlivening valuable but intrinsically uninteresting material is necessary.

3. Giving the pupil a method of attack in discovering his own solutions is most essential.

In view of the importance of these last two needs, a chapter devoted to methods of teaching algebra problems is included in the study.

A STUDY OF THE ARTICULATION IN ENGLISH BETWEEN THE HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE *

THIS study attempts to discover some of the causes of the lack of articulation between the English offered in the senior year of high school and that offered in the freshman year of college, and presents suggestions for improvement. The study is limited to twenty-one higher state-supported institutions and their accredited high schools, representing ten states.

SOURCES OF DATA

The data were assembled from catalogues of the twenty-one colleges; questionnaires submitted by these colleges and a representative group of their accredited high schools; state department high school English courses of study; all available educational articles on the subject; information received through correspondence with heads of English departments of the twenty-one colleges, and heads of English departments of the accredited high schools; the evaluation of three themes by high school teachers of English and freshman college instructors of English; an objective literature test administered to 515 senior-year high school pupils representing fifty-three high schools; and a survey of 1,080 freshman college themes to determine the categories and frequency of errors in the themes of students as they come from high school.

FINDINGS

1. There seems to be little sifting of English deficients during the senior year of high school; one-fifth of the freshman college English entrants fail.

2. The English offerings of the fourth year of high school articulate but slightly with the English offerings of the freshman college year. The former devotes three-fourths of the year to literature; the latter about three-fourths of the year to the so-called fundamentals.

3. Seventy-five per cent of the high schools devote about 14 per cent of the English allotment of time in the senior year to the study of English grammar, while 90 per cent of the colleges spend 20 per cent of the English time of the freshman year on this subject.

4. The college teachers ranked the lack of ability to read understandingly, and

* By William Eugene Vaughan, Ph.D. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 370.

the high school teachers the lack of ability to express ideas clearly and coherently, as the chief causes contributing to English deficients and failures. Both college and high school teachers ranked the lack of ability to appreciate good literature as the smallest contributing cause of English failures and deficients.

5. High school teachers of English have had far more definite professional training for teaching high school English than freshman college teachers have had for teaching freshman English.

6. There is an almost unanimous agreement between college instructors and high school instructors of English that much of the drill in the mechanics of writing should be covered in high school.

7. Little improvement is noted from year to year in the ability of the college entrant to do a creditable type of English work.

8. The freshman college teachers mark themes more uniformly and lower than do the high school teachers.

9. The objective test on backgrounds of literature administered to high school seniors reveals the fact that these students are poorly equipped in library information.

10. The error count of 1,080 college freshman themes shows that mistakes in writing are reducible to a few categories, almost half the errors being in punctuation.

Among the many suggestions for improvement, the outstanding one is that a series of objective English tests and intelligence tests prepared jointly by college and high school authorities should be administered at intervals throughout the entire high school course for the purpose of sifting the college "fit" from the "unfit." Much humiliation would thus be spared the unsuccessful college entrants, much money would be saved the taxpayers, and more time would be left for college teachers, relieved of the burden of continuous drilling in English fundamentals, to instruct those fitted to pursue college work.

THE TRAINING OF NEGRO TEACHERS IN LOUISIANA *

THE aim of this study was to discover the teacher training needs of the Negro schools of Louisiana and to propose a plan by which the state might adequately meet these needs. An attempt was made to give a solution which might actually be accepted by state authorities and eventually put into operation.

PROCEDURE

First, a background or point of view was developed through a study of general educational conditions in the South. Four states, three southern and one north central, were studied in forming the background. A brief description was given of various agencies, such as agricultural and mechanical colleges, Tuskegee Institute and Hampton Institute, the General Education Board, the Jeanes Fund, and others which are influential in educational development among Negroes. This was followed by a study of the economic conditions in Louisiana, the social and economic conditions of the Negro, and the historical factors affecting the development of Negro education.

* By Jane Ellen McAllister, Ph.D. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 364.

After a careful study of demand, supply, and the qualifications of the present Negro teachers, and a critical evaluation of all institutions, both state and private, recognized by the state in the training of teachers, an ultimate program and an immediate program of teacher training were proposed.

CONCLUSIONS

The defects in the Louisiana system of training for Negro teachers are: (1) Its requirements are too low. (2) Its facilities for training teachers are inadequate.

The remedial proposals are: (1) That more high schools be established for the preparatory training of teachers, since there are only three public accredited high schools for Negroes in the entire state. (2) That as soon as possible the high school training of teachers be abolished and all teachers in the elementary school be required to have two years of professional training beyond high school; and all secondary teachers, four years of training beyond high school. To carry out this program, two more normal schools should be established, one at Alexandria and one at Shreveport, and Southern University and the private colleges should devote most of their energies to the training of high school teachers since most of their courses are planned toward that end. Alexandria and Shreveport as homes for the normal schools satisfy the conditions laid down in Humphrey's study entitled: "Factors Operating in the Location of State Normal Schools."

The immediate program for Louisiana demands: (1) That it establish 13 more parish training schools (which can later be turned into high schools) to be located in East Carroll, Winn, Lake Charles, Rapides, West Carroll, Caldwell, Ouachita, Vermilion, LaSalle, Bossier, Terrebonne, Jefferson Davis, and Ascension; (2) That it build a new training School at Southern University; (3) That it increase its supervisory force; and (4) That it improve the preparation of its teachers in the parish training schools.

TEACHERS COLLEGE *in the* NEWS

COMPILED BY CLYDE R. MILLER
DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

Dean Russell's Report Arouses Comment

FEW official reports of college presidents and deans contain much that is of interest to the general public, but the latest report of Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, published elsewhere in this issue of the *Teachers College Record*, was an exception in this regard. In addition to news space and comment in the metropolitan press, Dean Russell's report resulted in numerous editorials, many of them in newspapers of the South. Francis L. Cardozo, writing in the *New York Sun*, in commenting on the Dean's desire to avert senescence in Teachers College, said:

It is assuredly the desire of the friends of Teachers College that it maintain the preëminent place among like institutions that a recent survey has given it. . . . The best safeguard in this laudable ambition is an able and robust faculty. So far as the eye may see, there is no "senescence" in this regard on Morningside Heights.

The *Charlotte* (N. C.) *Observer* had the following statement:

Once in a great while a voice is heard in the North, even in what might be called the Mencken Belt, speaking the truth about the South. At rare intervals a refreshing incident of the kind comes along, and in this case it is made the more delightful because of the high standing of the speaker of the truth as he has seen it. Dr. William F. Russell is Dean of the Teachers College of Columbia University, and he has been making note of educational progress in the South.

John Temple Graves, II, in his column in the *Birmingham* (Ala.) *Age-Herald*, wrote:

A voice that rang through Shiloh's woods
And Chickamauga's solitudes—
The fierce South calling on her sons.

It is a call whose answer is constantly more complete. It is a call to arms against every internal and external element that impedes a great land from its golden round. The history of the response is being written by impartial observers from other parts. Southerners themselves may be surprised at the recognition given this section's educational development by Dean William F. Russell, of Teachers College, Columbia University, in his report to President Nicholas Murray Butler. The recent development of education in the Southern states, declared this high priest of American educational processes, is the most significant lesson which foreign students can learn and carry back to their respective countries.

The *Nashville* (Tenn.) *Banner* suggested that Professor Edgar W. Knight of the University of North Carolina, who, last summer, before the Southern Club at Columbia University delivered an indictment against southern education, might read, to his profit, Dean Russell's analysis of education in the Southern states.

T. H. Alexander, writing in the *Memphis* (Tenn.) *Commercial Appeal*, spoke of the Dean's words concerning the South as "one of the most encouraging and heartening things ever uttered of the South and southern development." He stated that Dean Russell had drawn a fascinating picture and one for which the South might truly

give thanks. Referring to Dean Russell as formerly of the George Peabody College for Teachers and now dean of one of the world's best-known teacher colleges, the writer continued:

This report emphasizes the belief long expressed here that the southerner hears too much of the trend of industry to the south and too little of the tremendous advance within the south of popular education. I am familiar with the old dictum that the factories will bring money which in turn will bring leisure and culture, but the southerner who loves his land wisely does not wish to see industrialism eclipse culture.

I have always believed that prosperity is not a cause of education but that education is a cause of prosperity. Many who like to remember that North Carolina and Tennessee have the finest roads and the greatest prosperity in the South are prone to forget that they also have made the greatest strides in education. It was the schools that caused the advance in industry and not the industrial awakening that brought the educational rehabilitation.

When every citizen of the South has an education . . . it is quite obvious that society will have a richer citizenship. It will be a citizenship actually capable of earning more and thus contributing to the prosperity of the section.

From the moment that Tennessee deliberately embarked on a policy of so-called "nuisance taxes" in what virtually amounted to a popular referendum on the subject, education in Tennessee has been on the up-grade. It was the crucial test of the people's determination to have better schools and better teachers.

Russia

Not only politically and economically but also educationally Russia to-day commands the interest of intelligent persons. Teachers College has a peculiar interest in education in Russia. Within the past year Professor Paul Monroe and Professor R. B. Raup have observed conditions within Russia; for most of the past year, Professor George S. Counts, associate director of the International Institute, has travelled in Russia where he has made what appears to be the most thoroughgoing appraisal thus far of its educational system. Last winter the Institute brought to the College for a series of lectures Dr. Albert P. Pinkevitch, president of the Second State University at Moscow. That visit had results, as is evident in this article by Harry Hansen, in the *New York World*:

There must be many progressive educators in the United States who want to know how clean the new broom has swept in Russia. For them I recommend the best exposition of the Russian school system available to-day: "The New Education in the Soviet Republic," by Albert P. Pinkevitch. Issued by the John Day Company, it comes at the instance of Dr. George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, who asked Pinkevitch to elaborate his book for American readers.

Here is not only the story of how the educational system of a whole nation was completely scrapped, but how an entirely new point of view was adopted in teaching. Ten years ago the schools of Russia were in chaos, but the development of the new system has been scientific. Its chief aim was to teach the labor point of view and discard completely any imperial or capitalistic approach to knowledge. So drastic was the change that not only history and politics, but even æsthetics and logic, were approached from the Communist viewpoint and everything the pupil learned was in some way related to his place under the new order.

Critics of the Soviet system called this turnabout mere Communist propaganda and looked for its speedy collapse with the revision of Soviet aims. But Pinkevitch's book reveals why neither the new education nor the new political viewpoint has failed. The best known theories of education in other lands were studied

and adapted to the needs of Russian children. The result provides a new political education, but it also gives the child a new view of his duties and tasks. Just as the older academic systems glorified knowledge, so the Soviet system exalts the application of knowledge to labor, both of brain and hand.

To the Communist the old Russian school system reeked of the Czar. The relation of teacher to pupil was monarchical; the teacher stood far above the pupil and his word was law. Heavy tasks were imposed and punishments inflicted. The old-style classical examination, which meant hours of remorseless cramming, was used everywhere. There was an obeisance to orthodox religion which, in the eyes of the Communist, merely helped perpetuate monarchical abuses.

The new Russia applied itself to the needs of the nation and the child. It dealt with realities; hence the close connection of learning and work. The new school was a vocational school, but not in the sense of turning out carpenters, tailors and smiths. It adopted the idea that work with the hand stimulated work with the brain. It emphasized induction, which leads to muscular action and experiment, and hence to thinking.

It gave natural science the central place in the curriculum. It began to study the child as an individual. It adopted modern viewpoints on individual training, and emphasized education as nurture rather than the acquiring of academic knowledge. It denied the need of religious or national education. "Our practice convinces us that a child left to himself in questions of religion and removed from the presence of bad examples grows up free from prejudice," writes the author.

Self-government developed; the teacher became the guide rather than the monitor. Self-service followed self-government. Coeducation was instituted, the United States providing the inspiration. Cramming for examinations and tests was abolished. The object of the schools was not to achieve class distinction but to develop well-rounded men and women, capable of self-discipline and of taking care of themselves in the world.

* * *

All these modern methods do not include the central difference between Russian and non-Russian schools, and that is the viewpoint of the proletariat. The social question overshadows everything else in the Russian school. There is even a sociological approach to works of art. Pinkevitch points out that there is no need for telling a child fairy stories involving witches, ogres and princes, all of them hold-overs from monarchical times. The Russian strives for the creation of a proletarian fairy tale, in which the hero is invariably a great worker, a great reformer.

The teachings of John Dewey are highly valued in Russia, particularly because he believes in making active occupation participation the centre of the entire educational program. But even Dewey and Kershensteiner of Munich are suspected because they belong to the bourgeoisie. Pinkevitch remarks: "In voicing the interests of the great industrial bourgeoisie they are both concerned primarily with the reconciliation of classes. . . . The reconciliation of the workers with their condition of exploitation seems to be the fundamental thought of democrats such as Dewey and Kershensteiner." Yet Dewey probably comes closest of any one to the Soviet ideal of the school in his conception of the school as a result of contemporary conditions, and the need of connecting knowledge with life activities. Pinkevitch recommends that Russians study his writings, although reminding them that he is not entirely in accord with a true Soviet school.

In the exposition of the curriculum of the secondary school we see how thoroughly the Russians apply their political

ideas. Too long and detailed to quote here, it shows how everything in the Russian scene has to do with the economy of the Russian state. In the third year man's exploitation of the natural resources is explained from all points of view, emphasizing the waste in the social organization of labor under capitalism and the place of the Soviet régime as transition from capitalism to Communism. The conquest of the riches of nature becomes allied to the study of labor, and social life is reviewed from its primitive beginnings to its development in an organized labor state.

The labor school, says Pinkevitch, is based on production; it takes up the concrete production of the locality in which it is situated; it introduces the pupil to life, to labor and to production. And Pinkevitch also says, truly enough, "if the proletarian point of view is successively introduced into the fields of æsthetics, morality and science, and if this point of view is fully grasped by the pupils, the political convictions of the future citizen will be absolutely and unavoidably determined. And these convictions, whether the citizen is a party member or not, will be the convictions of a builder and warrior of Communism."

Another recent visitor to Russia, Professor Kilpatrick, has comment to make, at once interesting and significant. Some of it is in the following story, sent from Peiping, China, under date line of November 14, to the *New York Sun*:

The world's most thorough school system—that of Soviet Russia—is employed for propaganda instead of education, according to Dr. William H. Kilpatrick.

Professor Kilpatrick was one of the American delegates to the biennial conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations which was held at Kyoto, Japan. He traveled to Peiping by way of the Siberian railroad, stopping off in Moscow and other Russian cities to investigate educational trends under the Soviet system. Using an American girl, a graduate of a teachers college, as guide and translator, he went where he wished and in the course of a public lecture at Yenching University here, he gave a brief statement of his conclusions.

In his lecture Professor Kilpatrick limited his remarks to elementary and secondary schools, making no attempt to deal with higher or adult education. He indicated that his findings were based on first-hand information gathered in Moscow and reports from elsewhere which he believed to be trustworthy.

A central department of education for the whole of Soviet Russia conducts experiments and issues programs which are followed by every school within the boundaries of the country, Professor Kilpatrick said. Local control is in the hands of a school Soviet which acts like a board of trustees, and is composed of representatives of the parents, teachers, local trade unions, pupils and young peoples' organizations, including the ubiquitous "Young Pioneers." The latter, according to Professor Kilpatrick, are more widespread as an organization and apparently are more efficient than the Boy Scouts of the West.

"Considering the magnitude and scale of the scheme," the professor said, "no school system in history has been more thoroughly and consistently made to work into the social and political program of the State. It may be regarded without exaggeration as the most outstanding and ambitious enterprise that educational history has to show. Even down to the smallest detail in the school curriculum, every item is planned to further the Soviet plan for society. However, it is not education but propaganda that is being taught throughout the length and breadth of the country."

This propaganda undoubtedly is making the young people of Russia militaristic, Professor Kilpatrick thinks. "You see, we have to prepare," he was told. "All the other nations hate us and are going to fight us."

Professor Kilpatrick contrasted the Soviet school system with the Jesuit system in former days, the Prussian system just before 1914 and the present educational system in the United States. He said the Jesuit system was as thoroughly and consistently devised to further Jesuit aims, but was worked out on a much smaller scale. The Prussian system was neither as consistent nor on so far-flung scale, while the United States has a larger scale of work but is far less consistent in practice.

"The Russian system," Professor Kilpatrick said, "commands admiration for the extraordinarily effective way in which all is planned to further the Soviet program. Whether you approve of Sovietism or not, you must admit this fact. Summing up, in my judgment, as far as the Soviet method is applied it is succeeding.

"The educational authorities there asked for my frank criticism and I expressed doubt of the method itself being able to teach men to think for themselves instead of just thinking as their leaders tell them to. One of their leaders, Schatsky, evidently was sincere when he replied: 'You are wrong. Through this first stage they pass on to the point where they do think for themselves.'" Professor Kilpatrick said that he himself was not convinced on this point.

It was clear to Professor Kilpatrick that the Soviet authorities in actual practice give the pupils and teachers great freedom. Both groups are encouraged to work out what should be done in class in cooperation. Class marks and grades are usually allotted by a committee of teachers and pupils. Disputes seldom arise, he was told.

Professor Kilpatrick asked a teacher who taught for twenty-five years under the old régime what she thought of the new method. "The new way is much harder than the old," she replied, "but is much more interesting. I had to re-educate myself. There is a special department for retraining teachers which helps. Some of the teachers object, but on the whole they approve."

Mother Goose and the Fairies Still Live!

If any practical-minded folk believed late last fall that they could abolish Mother Goose and the familiar fairy tales known to generations of children they know better now—and all as the result of what has been called the Mother Goose controversy at Teachers College. Mother Goose, apparently, is more popular than ever, and as for fairy tales—they and the fairies still live! A story which appeared in the *New York Times* of November 24 quoted Miss Alice Dalgliesh, specialist in children's literature at Teachers College, and Miss Marie Duggan, for many years an English teacher, and now in the Bureau of Educational Service, on the subject of stories for little folk. The same story mentioned, also, certain very modern textbooks on display in the Teachers College library —texts which deal none too kindly, by implication at least, with Mother Goose and the fairy tales. Some readers associated the quotations from the texts with the views of Miss Dalgliesh and, especially, with the views of Miss Duggan. Additional stories in other newspapers, in which such readers were quoted as assailing what they mistakenly assumed to be Miss Duggan's point of view, carried to the whole world the news that Teachers College had come out against the almost sacred literature of childhood and was, therefore, guilty at once, of sacrilege, heresy, and treason. Teachers College, of course, as a college, has no point of view on this matter. Neither Miss Dalgliesh nor Miss Duggan would put an end to Mother Goose. Nor would any of the faculty or staff, so far as is known. Most of the ideas mistakenly attributed to Miss Duggan were from textbooks that just happened to be in the college library along with thousands of other books, none of them sponsored by the college. Probably all readers of the *Teachers College Record* saw American newspaper stories and editorials on this so-called controversy. Few, perhaps, have seen comments from news-

papers of England. A writer in the *Manchester Guardian* treated the matter poetically:

A "PRACTICAL" A B C

["Even old alphabet books have been superseded as being too fanciful and romantic. In future A, instead of standing for acorn or applepie, will stand for adding machines and axles, and other letters will have similarly practical significance." —New sidelight on the educational advantages enjoyed by the American child.]

Come here, little fathead, and sit down by me,
And let us run over your new A B C,
Whereby we impress on the immature mind
Some facts of a modern, more practical kind.

A is for Axle and Adding Machine,
B is for Bankrupt who hasn't a Bean;
C is for Carbon, Crank, Car, Carburettor,
D's for Debenture or Dollar or Debtor;
E's for Exchequer and office Equipment,
F is the Freight on a Foreigner's shipment;
G is for Gasoline, Gadget, and Gear,
H is the Hooter or Horn that we Hear;
I is for Inquest (as everyone knows);
J is the Joy-ride from which it arose;
K is for Kinema, Keyboard, and Keel;
L is for Limousine, wealth at the wheel;
M is for Money (and never you doubt it!);
N is the Nothing you count for without it;
O's Overdrawn, an embarrassing state,
P is the Payment that Puts the thing straight;
Q is for Quota and Quorum and Quid—
R is for Rum sort of terms for a kid;
S is the Screen that is Silent and mute;
T is the Talkies now hot in pursuit;
U is for Usury, not a nice word,
Value received would perhaps be preferred;
W stands for this World and its Ways;
X, I imagine, is merely X-rays;
Y is for Yen, which the Japanese chink,
And Z is for Zeppelin, Zion, and Zinc.

The ground is thus covered from A unto Z,
So get all these facts in your silly young head;
And when you have finished you should be a more
Inquisitive nuisance than ever before.

LUCIO.

The *Brooklyn Eagle's* special correspondent in London, Mr. Charles Ody, wrote a story which the *Eagle* headed "Columbia Fairy Ban Wins English Friends":

London, December 18th.—Many a jeer and many a cheer were evoked in England by the decision of the Teachers College of Columbia University that the whole conception of fairyland and fairies ought to be completely washed out of the minds of even little children. There were cheers in this country because England has its modern rationalisers of the infant intelligence who seek to discourage, not only such conceptions of fairyland, but even the use of the most ordinary and time-honored baby talk.

From time immemorial in the British nursery a railway engine has been a "puffer," for perfectly good and obvious reasons which have commended themselves to child and grown-up alike. Your modern equivalent in Britain of the Columbia pundits, however, has of late ordained that as soon as the child is old enough to grasp in most elementary fashion the idea of a locomotive, it must be taught to associate that idea not with the word "puffer" but with the word "engine."

So "mummy" is to become "mother" and "daddy" is to be known in future as "father." A horse must be called a horse and not a "gee-gee"; nor may we even employ the term of endearment "Neddy" for the donkey.

As for the more exaggerated baby-locutions, of course, the new school

would place them entirely outside of the pale. "Diddums hurtums ickle noseyposey?" for instance, must even in the case of an infant of 12 months be rendered by the orthodox: "Did you hurt your little nose?"—indeed, the purist would probably object to the diminutive-adjective seeing that the normal child has but one nose and there is, therefore, no need to specify a little one.

Unquestionably the movement toward this end, backed as it has been by associations of the nursing and teaching professions, has been making rapid progress in this country of late years; and up to the present there is no sign of any reaction so far as the pronunciation of words is concerned, though many mothers are reluctant to abandon the fairyland conception, still less can they bring themselves to undeceive their offspring on the subject of Father Christmas. The argument against the baby talk, however, applies equally against the fairies and Santa.

On the other hand, the defenders of the old order are those who jeer at Columbia's Teachers College—scornfully they assert that they want their children to be children, and not to try to ape the mind of the grown-up while still in infant clothes.

It is a fact, though, that booksellers and publishers find it increasingly harder to sell in England fairy-stories of the old-fashioned type, which have decidedly gone out of favor in recent years. The reason is that most of these were, in fact, of a blood-thirsty character. Thus, "Red Ridinghood" had to see her grandmother eaten by a wolf; in "Jack and the Bean-stalk" the child is made acquainted with battle, murder and sudden death; even "The Three Bears," though wholly bloodless, conveys the impression that to steal a baby bear's breakfast is nothing reprehensible, but merely an adventure. As for "The Three Pigs," it is an orgy of unsatiated, bestial appetite in a world where the fittest who survive are also the cruelest and most cunning.

The present season has witnessed the advent of a further crop of nature stories, including a fair proportion in which animals are the heroes and dwell on terms of friendly intercourse with children, human language being the accepted medium of intercourse. Fairy stories are popular, but only so long as the idea of murder or death is not present.

It is quite safe to say, though, that not in our time will Santa Claus—or Father Christmas—call him what you will, I mean the benevolent old gentleman with long white whiskers—be deposed from the position he has occupied since he came to England from Germany many, many centuries ago.

In the supposed edict against fairy tales the *London Times* saw—facetiously—a connection with big business and the recent crash in Wall Street. It said, in part:

Motor-car manufacturers naturally object to being put in the shade by seven-league boots and fairy-godmothers. What manufacturers can make out of a few pieces of iron and wood is very remarkable, but it will not be adequately admired by people who already know what can be done with a pumpkin, six mice, and a rat. The marvels of modern manufacturing do not get a fair chance, and the habits which are essential to industry—such as plodding regularity, thrift, and a conviction that nothing unexpected will happen—are not habits which fairy tales help to form. Moreover, so many fairy tales suggest that it pays to bestow indiscriminate charity, and to give money or help old women in the street instead of directing them to some legally constituted charitable body. So it is not surprising that fairyland has raised up against itself a powerful coalition of manufacturers and sociologists. On the other side stand those who deal in stocks and shares and who know

there is no computing what they owe to fairy tales in making the public optimistic, prepared for amazing changes of fortune, and convinced that the laws governing the acquisition of wealth are something quite beyond human ken. The zoological flavours which stockbrokers give to their world, the bulls and bears and stags and wild-cats, are not there by accident, but convey a subtle suggestion of that fairyland where the most unlikely animals lead men to fortune, and the most unprepossessing exteriors change to beauty when boldly embraced.

But Wall Street is hard hit at the moment, and the enemies of fairyland have cleverly diminished the interest of the financiers in saving it by including Brer Rabbit in the condemnation. No tales ever written are such a textbook of cunning or teach more powerfully the lesson that to walk warily is the first rule of self-preservation, and to lie glibly the second. Perhaps few people who put bucket-shop prospectuses in the waste-paper basket are being consciously influenced by Uncle Remus; but there is at the back of their minds a keen sense of the speciousness of appearances and of the endless pitfalls that beset the human path. And this they owe to the conversation of Brer Rabbit and Brer Fox. Whether the educationists will have everything their own way will only be seen when a generation has grown up that knows not Sinbad. Perhaps the manufacturers of night-lights will discover in time a vested interest in giants and ogres, and will tell in advertisements the stories that may no longer be taught in schools. An ogreless childhood would be a bleak and thrill-less waste, deprived of the imaginative richness which makes the smallest and newest villa a place of many dark and uncertain corners, governed by many strange taboos. But the danger threatening modern children is so great and real that they have no need of borrowed excitement. If the Columbia teachers have their way, the gray prison walls of the giant's castle will close round their young prey in solemn earnest, and an unending vista of days spent in the compulsory acquisition of useful facts will bring it home to the young that there are in the world to-day plenty of ogres and ogresses, who, if more thin-blooded, are also more pertinacious and brainy, and much harder to circumvent, than the blundering ogres of the banished fairy tales.

Women of Today—Professor Nutting

This is the heading of a syndicated article which tells briefly of the work of outstanding women of the United States, and which is written by Lilian Campbell. Recently she wrote of Professor Nutting:

The United States has but one emeritus professor of nursing, Miss M. Adelaide Nutting, and when Teachers College celebrated recently the thirtieth anniversary of its school of nursing, of which Miss Nutting was long the head, it gave her special honor. Miss Nutting has seen the school grow from a beginning—prompted by herself and another nurse—when six graduate nurses a year were admitted for special study, until it has become a department with a large staff of special instructors and an annual enrollment of more than 600 student nurses, all of whom have previously received their diplomas from hospital schools.

Although she has retired as head of the School of Nursing and given over her responsibilities to Miss Isabel M. Stewart, one of her former pupils, Miss Nutting still makes her home in Emerson Hall, one of the college dormitories, and is as keenly interested as ever in the program of this New York nursing school.

Federal Aid for Schools

Readers of the *Teachers College Record* are more familiar, no doubt, with argu-

ments in behalf of federal aid for schools than they are with arguments against such aid. Something of this second point of view is seen in the following editorial that appeared in the *Providence* (R. I.) *Journal*. Incidentally, the editorial outlines Dr. Strayer's and Dr. Engelhardt's suggestion that school building and maintenance on a large scale be an important part of President Hoover's prosperity program:

An elaborate plan of nation-wide school construction activities by the Federal Government has been suggested by Dr. George D. Strayer, the Columbia University educator who devised the present public school system in Providence, as an urgently desirable feature of the Administration's program for the maintenance of American prosperity. Dr. Strayer is a member of the President's National Advisory Committee on Education, and he proposes in the near future to present specific plans for the carrying out of this building scheme to that body. He thinks that the expenditure of even a billion dollars would not be too much for the purpose.

As he points out, such an undertaking would not only serve a great purpose in keeping labor employed but would provide needed facilities for education, which is intimately bound up with the nation's economic welfare. As an indication that the estimate of needs is not extravagant, it may be said that after a recent survey of the public schools of Missouri, Dr. Strayer recommended the expenditure of one hundred and fifty million dollars in that State alone. And he is no doubt right in saying that in many other States the conditions call even more urgently for improvement.

No one conversant with the general situation can fail to recognize the soundness of Dr. Strayer's arguments for the provision of adequate school facilities. But the extent to which the Federal Government should participate financially in the correction of existing inadequacies is a question calculated to arouse the firm opposition of thousands of thoughtful citizens. And there are sound reasons for resisting Federal aid to the States in this particular. The financial question is but one aspect of the matter. There would be the grave danger that such a beginning would tend to develop an increasing control of the schools from Washington.

It is still the prevailing sentiment that education is the State's business and should be kept free from Federal interference beyond that which may be exercised in an advisory capacity. Anything that savors of Federal control would be open to many objections.

The valid principle of education in this country is that each State shall take care of its own schools and see that adequate facilities are provided. It is a lamentable fact that many States, especially in the South and the West, fail in this respect, and perhaps no State can boast of a 100 per cent efficiency. The conditions in many places are disgraceful and the need of sweeping improvements is unquestioned. As some States are undoubtedly too poor to finance the needed development of their schools themselves, the idea of Federal aid to the States in a general building program is one that carries a strong appeal. But the theoretical and actual menaces in such a plan are manifest.

It is true, as Dr. Strayer intimates, that no State can afford to ignore the educational deficiencies existing in any other State. We are all economically interdependent, and ignorance and inefficiency in various scattered localities operate as obstacles to our mass welfare. At the same time there is an exceedingly dangerous principle involved in Federal aid for projects that are the legitimate affairs of the several States. There has been a strong tendency in recent years to appeal to Washington for help along the most varied lines. We shall be in a bad way if the tendency is not curbed. The constant demand for Federal aid for

this and Federal aid for that may easily be carried to vicious lengths.

Frederick Rand Rogers Attacks High School Athletics

The story is told by the *New York World* of December 6:

Affirming all the findings of the Carnegie Foundation in its smashing attack on intercollegiate athletics, Dr. Frederick Rand Rogers, New York State Director of Health Education, in a study to be issued to-day charges that the same gigantic overemphasis and taint of commercialism have overtaken the high schools, with the crowning phase the hysteria of championships. The study, which is published by Teachers College, Columbia University, was completed before the publication of the Carnegie report.

Dr. Rogers' chief contention in regard to high schools is that athletics have changed from healthy recreation and play to commercial exhibitions, in which money plays a major rôle. The athletes strain themselves to brilliant performances with an eye to getting wide publicity and sizable subsidies from colleges contracting for their services, and interest in the spectacles is fostered by the 15,000 paid coaches in American high schools and by sporting goods manufacturers with millions in investments and thousands of employees.

Furthermore, he charges that there are more physical injuries in proportion to the number of combatants in the average modern interscholastic championship than in the average war.

That the high schools and coaches exploit the players to win championships for their own glorification regardless of the cost to the player in health.

That the boys are exploited as a source of amusement by the huge crowds that witness athletic contests.

That school and town officers who urge large expenditures on gymnasiums, stadia and equipment are prompted generally by the desire to advertise the school and the town.

That the selfish desire for personal glory which the championship contest fosters operates against fair play and enjoyment of the game.

That college invitation tournaments for high schools are designed for self-advertising and to help the college pick out promising athletic material.

That the claims of novices and the physically handicapped in high schools are ignored by coaches who overstrain and overspecialize the superior athlete.

Dr. Rogers proposes to eliminate individual and group championships, to return the game to the boys by curbing the activities of adult coaches, reducing the costs, charging nominal admission fees to pupils and their parents, having the games played on weekdays and in the afternoon when it would be inconvenient for outsiders to attend and by encouraging superior athletes to enter semiprofessional sports so as to curb professionalism in the schools and at the same time offer athletic spectacles to those who crowd the stadia at present.

He would have a physician at every game empowered to remove any player at any time or stop the contest altogether if necessary, would limit football quarters to ten minutes and not allow the mile to be run by pupils under twenty, the half-mile by those under eighteen, and the quarter-mile under sixteen.

Prizes would be limited to small intrinsic value.

Coaches teach sports as a means of self-aggrandizement rather than as pleasure and recreation, he asserts. Athletic leagues foster the spirit of struggle by emphasizing and rewarding athletic victories, spurring athletes on to strain themselves by exalting records, and conducting championship contests.

This comment was made by Mr. Tracy, writing in the *New York Telegram* and other Scripps-Howard newspapers:

Per se, sport is a fine thing, but it has ceased to be a per se article, and those educators who feel alarmed at its drift and effect are not all wrong.

As Dr. Frederick Rand Rogers, director of health education for the State of New York, points out, sport has changed from recreation to a commercialized activity.

Nor is the money it costs or the time it wastes the worst feature.

What counts even more is the mental attitude it develops, the desire to be a hero, the disposition to regard physical supremacy in any line as more important than intellectual supremacy.

Athletics were introduced into our schools for the sake of bodily health and were supposed to include every one.

By an evolutionary process, which it would be hard to explain, they have developed into a star-producing mill.

What every school and college wants now is not a higher group average but prize winners.

Ten or fifteen per cent of the students may be better off because of this, but the rest have deteriorated into bench warmers, while dad pays the freight.

It has come to a point where we rate educational institutions by their football and track teams and where our young people measure their worth by the same yardstick.

No one can quarrel with the idea of physical training, but that is beside the mark. Physical training for the average student doesn't enter the picture when it comes to sport.

Sport, as we know it to-day, means small, intensively trained groups for the rest to watch and applaud.

Worse still, it means such an aspiration to be in those groups, such striving and straining, as virtually obliterates all sense of educational value in the minds of young people.

Go into any home in this country where the children are attending high school or college, and what do you hear but continual chatter about this or that team, this or that play, this or that game?

Conversation with regard to studies and their importance has practically ceased, and for every boy between 12 and 20 who can name the members of the President's Cabinet or the Justices of the Supreme Court there are a dozen who can name the members of the football teams of Harvard, Yale, Notre Dame, or twenty other colleges.

Our psychologists would do well to give this matter some consideration, because it has a bearing on the future, revealing a tendency which will make itself felt in the attitude and activities of the next generation.

COLLEGE & ALUMNI NOTES

COLLEGE NOTES

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

During the months of December and January, the members of the second major course for superintendents of schools were actively engaged in field work and laboratory work connected with the survey of the school system of Holyoke, Mass. The first visits were made to Holyoke by the committees on the measurement of achievement and the development of the school building program. These committees worked under the direction of Drs. George D. Strayer, N. L. Engelhardt, and C. J. Tidwell. Subsequently, the committees on teaching personnel and on financing education visited Holyoke under the direction of Drs. W. S. Elsbree and Carter Alexander. Dr. Paul R. Mort, also, spent considerable time in Holyoke on the classification and progress of the school children and Dr. Engelhardt spent the early part of January with a committee whose function it was to study all aspects of business administration. The report of the survey is being brought together in Room 215, Teachers College, the laboratory of this department. It is expected that the final report will be ready late in March.

Professor N. L. Engelhardt has been elected a director of the Board of Managers of the West Side Young Men's Christian Association, New York City, and a member of the Educational Committee of this Y. M. C. A. This organization is soon to move into its new $3,000,000 building.

Professors George D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, assisted by Mr. Francis C. Buros, assistant in the department, have prepared a "Study of the Junior High School Needs of the Battle Avenue School District, White Plains, N. Y." This report has been presented to the Board of Education of White Plains.

Professor Engelhardt has been appointed chairman of the subcommittee entitled "The School Plant, Its Construction, Equipment, Sanitation and Maintenance" of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

Dr. H. A. Smith has recently completed the requirements for the doctorate. His dissertation, which is now in the press of the Bureau of Publications, concerns itself with "Economy in Public School Fire Insurance."

Professor Engelhardt spoke on December 3 at the dedication of the North Junior High School at Watertown, N. Y. His topic was, "What a Junior High School Should Mean to a Community."

Professor Mort spent December 27 to January 4 in Colorado working on the problem of reconstructing the system of financing public schools. A preliminary report of the study has been made to the Coöperating Committee of Citizens and to the Delegate Assembly of the Colorado Education Association.

Practical Arithmetics, a series of arithmetic books for Grades 3 to 8, inclusive, have recently been published by Mentzer, Bush and Co. of New York and Chicago. The authors are Dr. N. L. Engelhardt, Mr. James H. Smith, superintendent of schools, Aurora, Ill., and Mr. Aaron Kline, principal of the Pullman School, Chicago, Ill.

There will come shortly from the press of the Bureau of Publications a new book entitled *Planning School Building Programs* by Professors N. L. Engelhardt, of Teachers College, and Fred Engelhardt, of the University of Minnesota.

The book is concerned principally with principles and techniques of school program planning. The titles of the chapters show the comprehensive nature of the text. They are as follows: (1) Changes in Total Population and the Schools; (2) The Measure of School Population; (3) Forecasting Population; (4) Forecasting School Population; (5) Significant Factors in School Site Selection; (6) The Size and Form of the School Site; (7) Planning Site Programs; (8) City Planning and the Plant Program; (9) Landscaping the School Site; (10) Administrative Variables and the Building Program; (11) School Building Utilization; (12) School Building Standards; (13) Architectural Service and the Building Program; (14) Educational Service and the Building Program; (15) Construction Service and the Building Program; (16) School Building Costs; (17) The Cost of School Sites; (18) Financing and Cost of School Building Programs; (19) Publicity and School Buildings; and (20) School Building Surveys.

The dissertation of Dr. H. H. Linn, entitled *Safeguarding School Funds*, has just come from the press of the Bureau of Publications. The study will be of special interest to school board members, school superintendents, school business executives, and those in the habit of furnishing surety bonds for school purposes. A special section has to do with the safeguarding of school funds in the state of Florida.

The study by Dr. J. W. Baldwin on *The Social Studies Laboratory* has recently come from the press of the Bureau of Publications. This study will be of great interest to school superintendents, principals of schools, and social studies teachers, as it covers the equipment and teaching aids needed in social studies.

Dr. E. L. Tink's dissertation on *Certain Phases of County Educational Organization* has just come from the press of the Bureau of Publications. This work will be of interest to administrators, legislators, and others planning the revision of state programs of administration.

Mr. Fred McCuistion has accepted the appointment by the Rosenwald Fund of Chicago, Ill., as associate director of its work in the southern states. Mr. McCuistion leaves the position of state director of negro education in Arkansas.

Professor Strayer addressed the meeting of the Ohio Education Association, held in Columbus on December 26 and 27. His subjects were: "Administrative Supervision," "Creative Teaching," and "A Recreation Program for City School Systems."

Professor Strayer addressed the Parent-Teacher Conference held at Teachers College on December 5. He spoke on "The Educational Significance of the Parent-Teacher Association."

Professor Carter Alexander will present a paper on which he and Mr. L. P. Young are working this year before one of the sections of the American Educational Research Association at Atlantic City in February. It is entitled "The Superintendent's Minimum Professional Library."

Professor Alexander will deliver an address on "Justifying the Costs of Education" before the educational conference to be held at the University of Pittsburgh in April.

ADVISERS OF WOMEN

Professor Ruth Strang has undertaken a detailed study of the three hundred and eleven students enrolled in the major course during 1927, 1928, and 1929 to find social backgrounds as indicated to some extent by place of birth, occupation of father, nationality of grandparents, and extent to which students were self-supporting while they were pursuing their education; information concerning their "social intelligence," teaching experience, voluntary advisory work, participation in extra-curricular activities; age, salary, and term mark. The findings concerning the characteristics of those who have prepared to be deans should be interesting to those contemplating preparing for the profession of dean of women.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The Board of Superintendents of the New York City Schools has conveyed to Professor Leta S. Hollingworth resolutions of appreciation for "patience and industry exhibited over a number of years" in educational experimentation conducted in coöperation with Public School No. 165, Manhattan. The investigations referred to dealt with a group of highly intelligent children during the years since 1922. Sixteen different studies have emerged up to this time from data thus accumulated. The Board of Superintendents informs Professor Hollingworth that a report of this work will be printed under its auspices, and will be distributed to principals of training schools, high schools, and elementary schools throughout the city.

ENGLISH

Professor Ida A. Jewett addressed the teachers of the English department of the Walton High School, New York City, December 10, on the teaching of composition in high school.

GEOGRAPHY

At the sixteenth annual meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers, held at Ohio State University, on December 28 and 29, Mr. DeForest Stull was elected president for the year 1930. Mr. Stull also appeared on the

program to discuss the topic, "The Introductory Course in Geography in the Teachers College."

A meeting of the Metropolitan Council of Geography Teachers was held in Milbank Chapel on December 9, under the auspices of the department of Geography of Teachers College. More than two hundred and fifty local teachers were present to hear Professor J. Russell Smith, of Columbia University, speak on "The Place and Plight of Geography in American Education." Other meetings will be held during the present school year, and will be addressed by prominent geographers, among them Professors Lobeck and Orchard of Columbia University, Professors Ridgley and Atwood of Clark University.

During the past two years Mr. Stull has contributed to the magazine, *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*, eight articles on various aspects of geography.

GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL

The Teachers College Branch of the National Vocational Guidance Association entertained on December 17 in honor of Miss Ann Davis, director of Vocational Guidance for the Chicago Public Schools. Miss Davis spoke briefly about the development of vocational guidance in Chicago. Plans were made for the organization of a delegation to attend the conference of the National Vocational Guidance Association in Atlantic City, February 20 to 22.

Several guests were present from the New York City Branch of the association. Refreshments were served.

Teachers College takes pleasure in welcoming Mr. Robert Hoppock, the newly elected executive secretary of the National Vocational Guidance Association.

This appointment is made possible by a grant from the J. C. Penney Foundation which has agreed to subsidize the office for a period of five years, to the end that the diverse agencies interested in vocational guidance—schools, colleges, industrial establishments, and social service agencies—might be coördinated in a national way.

With the approval of Dean Russell, an invitation was extended to the Association to make its headquarters at Teachers College, and the offer was gratefully accepted.

Mr. Hoppock, who was formerly vocational counselor in the public schools of Rahway, N. J., begins his work officially on February 1. His headquarters are Room 437, Lincoln Research Building.

HEALTH EDUCATION

Miss Dorothy La Salle, who was graduated from Teachers College, with a major in Physical Education, in 1917, has been appointed secretary of the Committee on The School Child, of which Professor Thomas D. Wood is chairman. This is one of the committees of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION

Professor Willystine Goodsell attended the annual meeting of the American Sociological Society which was held in Washington, December 27 to December 30, inclusive. Dr. Goodsell presented to the section on The Family the findings of a study of "The Size of Family of College and Non-College Married Women."

HOUSEHOLD ARTS

Mr. H. J. Schlink, engineer, co-author of *Your Money's Worth*, spoke before students in the Household Arts department on October 18 and 25 on the "Consumer and the Retail Market," outlining consumers' difficulties in present retail markets and ways ahead to more efficient retail buying. Mr. Schlink has been concerned with the movement for standardizing retail goods and has been secretary of The American Standards Committee and also an officer in the Consumers' Club.

HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS

A program on Economics and Education, or Planning the Economic Order, was presented at the meeting of the Educational Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society in Washington, held on December 30. Professor Benjamin R. Andrews was chairman of the meeting and Professor Harold F. Clark gave a paper on "Occupational Distributions." This program is part of the plans for a yearbook on Economics and Education which Professor Andrews and Professor Clark are working on for the Educational Sociological Association.

Professor Andrews spoke before the alumnæ and students of the home economics department of the New York State Teachers College, Albany, N. Y., December 11, on "English Home Economics Education"; and before the Child Study Association in New York, January 27, on "Children and Money."

Three new volumes in the Lippincott Home Economics series have appeared recently under the editorship of Professor Andrews: *Problems in Home Economics Teaching*, by Miss Kauffman, of the New York State Education Department; *Costume Throughout the Ages*, by Professor Mary Evans of Teachers College; and *Food Purchasing for the Household*, by Ruetta Day Blinks and Willeta Moore.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

The Teachers College Industrial Arts Round Table has held two meetings. The first was held on October 17, at which time Professor M. G. Sherwood, head of the department of manual arts at the Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich., led the discussion of the topic, "The Possibilities of Ground-School Instruction in Aëronautics as a Developmental Subject of Study in Secondary Schools." At the second meeting, held on December 5, Professor Hugh Norris, of the Ada, Okla., Teachers College, discussed a proposed scale for rating industrial arts departments. Both meetings were well attended and great interest was taken in the discussion of the topics.

MATHEMATICS

Professor Clifford B. Upton spoke recently before the Teachers' Association of Yonkers, N. Y., on "The Teaching of Subtraction in the Primary Grades."

Professor William D. Reeve spent November 6 in Kansas City, Mo., with a committee of teachers working on the course of study in mathematics for the junior and senior high schools. He gave a series of lectures at the meeting of the Missouri State Teachers Association at St. Louis, Mo., on November 7 and 8. He also spoke at the Teachers Col-

lege dinner which was held at the Hotel Jefferson on November 8.

Mr. John A. Swenson spoke at the meeting of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics of the Middle States and Maryland held at Atlantic City on Saturday, November 30. His topic was "The Teaching of the Calculus in the Senior High School."

Mr. Carl N. Shuster spoke at the same meeting on "Applied Mathematics for the High School."

NURSING EDUCATION

Professor Isabel M. Stewart is absent on sabbatical leave. She sailed December 27 for the Orient, and will visit India, Java, China, Japan, and the Philippines.

Professor Elizabeth C. Burgess addressed the Rhode Island League of Nursing Education on December 5 at Providence, R. I., and on the evening of December 6 gave an address at the Commencement of the Peter Bent Brigham Hospital School of Nursing in Boston.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Professor Jesse F. Williams gave the dedicatory address, "Physical Education in the University," of the new health and physical education building at the University of Georgia on January 25.

Mrs. Nita Sheffield Blain attended a three-day conference, December 11 to 13, on "The Theory and Practice of Swimming and Its Related Subjects," at the Bouvé School in Boston. A special session was given to The Theory, Practice, and Demonstration Teaching of Swimming, to which the students and faculty of the Boston School of Physical Education and Wellesley were invited.

PRACTICAL ARTS

In December, Professor M. A. Bigelow addressed the Parent-Teacher Conference on "Social Hygiene in Relation to the Parent-Teacher Association" and gave lectures on health education and social problems of the family at Winthrop College and at Georgia State College for Women. He also visited seven colleges in connection with the work of the Committee on College Hygiene of the National Health Council.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

At the Atlantic City meetings in February Professor Thomas H. Briggs will speak before the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Society of College Teachers of Education. Professor Grayson N. Kefauver will address the National Society of College Teachers of Education.

Professor Maxie N. Woodring will speak to the High School teachers of Summit, N. J., February 11 on "Differentiated Assignments." She will also address the New Jersey State Teachers Association at New Brunswick, N. J., on May 3.

The issues and special functions of secondary education as presented by Professor Briggs in the current yearbook of the Department of Superintendence are being used as the topics for discussion this year in the six regional conferences held by the State of Maryland for high school principals.

Professor Percival M. Symonds attended the meetings of the American

Association for the Advancement of Science held at Des Moines, Iowa, December 27-28. He read a paper in Section I entitled "An Adjustment Survey," in which he described two instruments for surveying personality adjustments of high school pupils. This paper will appear as an article in a forthcoming number of the *Journal of Educational Research.*

At the Parent-Teacher Conference held under the auspices of Teachers College and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, December 5, Professor E. K. Fretwell discussed the relation of the Parent-Teacher Association to the secondary school. At other Parent-Teacher Association meetings Professor Fretwell discussed the part played by the home and by the school in developing the social program (at School No. 8, Yonkers, N. Y., November 21); "The mental and emotional status of the pupil" (Junior High School, Westfield, N. J., January 15); "A constructive extra-curricular program" (Roosevelt Junior High School, New Rochelle, N. Y., January 27).

Professor Fretwell has been working with New York City public school teachers and in this connection was the speaker at the dinner meeting of the First Assistants in High Schools at the Hotel Woodstock, December 14, and at the dinner meeting of the Assistant Principals in Elementary Schools, December 19.

At the meeting of the New York section of the National Camp Directors Association, January 10, Professor Fretwell discussed by invitation "A Constructive Program for the National Camp Directors Association," and as chairman of the National Committee in charge of the professional training of Boy Scout executives, he presided at the opening of the twenty-third course, November 16, at The Builders Club, 2 Park Avenue, New York City.

Professor Fretwell spent January 30-February 1 with Superintendent Bela B. Smith and his teachers at Connellsville, Pa., discussing ways of improving organization and teaching in the high school.

BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

The Bureau of Educational Service office at Atlantic City during the meeting this month of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association will be in Room 132, Hotel Traymore. Here will be found the following representatives of the Bureau: Clyde R. Miller, director; Isabelle Pratt, Ruth Welch, Marie Duggan.

The same room will serve as a temporary convention office for the secretary of Teachers College, Dr. Clarence M. Linton, and for the assistant secretary, Walter E. Hager.

Clyde R. Miller, director of the Bureau of Educational Service, met with the Board of Trustees of Western Reserve Academy at Hudson, Ohio, December 15, and attended a conference of the faculty of the Academy, of which he is an adviser.

Mr. Miller will speak before the National Association of Placement and Personnel Officers at Atlantic City,

February 20, 1930, on the subject, "Present Problems in Teacher Placement." He will also give a talk on the subject of "Spreading the News" at the annual luncheon of the Educational Press Association in Atlantic City, February 25, 1930.

Mr. Miller early in December visited Ohio State University and Oberlin College to study forms and filing systems used in teacher placement at those institutions.

Recent changes in positions of Teachers College Alumni are reported by the Bureau of Educational Service:

Arratia, Margaret M. (Mrs.), from secretarial worker, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New York City, to teacher of English, Spence School, New York City.

Argauer, Arthur, from play supervisor, Montclair Academy, Montclair, N. J., to director of physical education and athletics, Junior High School, York, Pa.

Baxter, Mrs. Louise, from teacher of clothing, School of Industrial Arts, Philadelphia, Pa., to teacher of clothing, High School, East Orange, N. J.

Brown, Mrs. Merle, from supervisor and critic teacher, Jackson Graded School, Teachers College of Indianapolis, to fifth grade critic, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

Clarke, Helen, from director of dietetics, Clifton Springs Sanitarium, Clifton Springs, N. Y., to chief dietitian, Blodgett Memorial Hospital, Grand Rapids, Mich.

Granby, Alice, from student dietitian, Presbyterian Hospital, New York City, to dietitian, Monte Fiore Hospital, New York City.

Hunsicker, Agnes, from instructor in home economics, Irving College, Mechanicsburg, Pa., to teacher of vocational home economics, Estella High School, Forksville, Pa.

Irons, Minnie I., from head of department of teacher training in home economics, Michigan State College, Lansing, Mich., to professor of home economics, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Hagedorn, Ella B., from New Brunswick Public Schools to instructor, fifth and sixth grade English and literature, Scarsdale Public Schools, Scarsdale, N. Y.

Jamieson, Helen, from swimming instructor, Oregon State College, Corvallis, Ore., to physical education instructor, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Kerr, Chester O., from chairman, educational inquiry, Teachers College, to director, religious education, Park Central Presbyterian Church, Syracuse, N. Y.

Key, Cora, from clinical psychologist, Children's Aid Society, Buffalo, N. Y., to clinical psychologist, Bellevue Hospital, New York City.

Larkin, Bertha, from dean, Castleton Normal School, Castleton, Vt., to rural training teacher, State School of Agriculture, Alfred, N. Y.

Laing, Martha M., from kindergarten teacher, Garden Country Day School, Jackson Heights, L. I., to housemother, Northwood Junior School, Lake Placid Club, N. Y.

Livengood, Mrs. Lucy H., from first grade teacher, Spokane, Wash., to primary teacher, Princess Issena School, Daytona Beach, Fla.

Mahrle, Helen, from assistant manager, Alice Foote MacDougall Coffee Shop, New York City, to manager of food shop, Food Craft Shop, Chicago, Ill.

Matthews, Martin Taylor, from reader in philosophy, New Jersey Law

School, Newark, N. J., to assistant professor of sociology, Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt.

Morse, Rolland E., from teacher of history, Emerson High School, Gary, Ind., to teacher of history, high school, Charlotte, Mich.

Ryder, Elizabeth H., from teacher of art and history, Public School, Eddystone, Pa., to head of social science department, High School, Pottsville, Pa.

Sackett, E. B., from assistant in administration department, Teachers College, to assistant director, junior division, League of Red Cross Society, Paris, France.

Schloemer, Emilie D., from kindergarten teacher, St. Agnes Chapel, New York City, to director of kindergarten, Horace Greeley School, Chappaqua, N. Y.

Seal, Mrs. B. F., from primary teacher, Riverside School, New York City, to second grade teacher, Halsted School, Yonkers, N. Y.

Sifford, Pearl, from teacher of Spanish and Latin, Woodland High School, Woodland, Calif., to instructor in Spanish, Compton Junior College, Compton, Calif.

Smith, Eunice, from kindergarten teacher, Broadway Tabernacle Church School, New York City, to second grade critic teacher, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

Spencer, Mrs. Margery, from art assistant, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas, to fine arts instructor, East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas.

Stauffer, Edith J., from dean of women, State Teachers College, Bloomsburg, Pa., to teacher of English and history, George Innes Junior High School, Montclair, N. J.

Steers, Wm. H., from baseball coach, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore., to director of physical education and coach, State Teachers College, California, Pa.

Steele, Althea Rose, from head of home economics department, Pikeville College, Pikeville, Ky., to head of home economics department, Logan College, Russellville, Ky.

Sullivan, Verna, from third grade teacher, Harrison Hill School, Fort Wayne, Ind., to primary critic, State Normal School, Oneonta, N. Y.

Wells, Eleanor, from dietitian, Dunedin Hospital, Dunedin, New Zealand, to dietitian, Christadora House, New York City.

Wiley, Stella M.—Teacher of clothing, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

Wilson, Grace F.—Supervisor of sixth grade, Trenton Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Winslow, Harry—Assistant superintendent of schools, Park Ridge, Ill.

Wood, Marielle Ruth—Teacher of public speaking and dramatics, Lyons Union School, Lyons, N. Y.

Woodrow, Eva H.—Teacher of fine arts, High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.

Woodruff, Janet—Assistant professor of physical education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

Wornom, H. E.—Director of religious education, Glen Ridge Congregational Church, Glen Ridge, N. J.

Wose, Helen—Teacher of English, Washington School, Bound Brook, N. J.

Wright, Pearl—Teacher of elementary mathematics, Horace Mann School, New York City.

Wysor, Nettie—Teacher of Latin, Miss Hall's School, Pittsfield, Mass.

Ziller, M. Louise—Head of home economics department, High School, Evanston, Ill.

ALUMNI NOTES

TEACHERS COLLEGE ALUMNI ASSOCIATION OFFICERS

President: Dr. J. CAYCE MORRISON, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.
First Vice-President: Dr. FANNIE W. DUNN, Assistant Professor of Education, Teachers College.
Second Vice-President: Dr. VELDA C. BAMESBERGER, Director of Elementary Education, Board of Education, Toledo, Ohio.
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Treasurer: Mr. CLYDE R. MILLER, Director, Bureau of Educational Service, Teachers College.
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Miss MARION SHERIDAN, 711 Orange Street, New Haven, Conn.
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Dean M. G. NEALE, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
Miss ANNA E. RICHARDSON, Field Worker for American Home Economics Association, 617 Mills Building, Washington, D. C.
Alumni Office: Teachers College, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

Address all communications to Katherine I. Sherwin,
Corresponding Secretary, Teachers College, New York City.

Belle Ranney (A.M. 1928) was one of the speakers at the English Round Table at the meeting of the New Jersey State Teachers Association in Atlantic City, November 9-12. She spoke on individual instruction in English.

Richard H. Paynter (Ph.D. 1917) was recently appointed acting head of the department of psychology at Long Island University in Brooklyn.

Amanda Hebeler (A.M. 1928), who has been since 1924 supervisor in the training department of the State Normal School, Ellensburg, Wash., was appointed last June director of teacher training there.

Truman L. Kelley (Ph.D. 1914) is psychologist on the American Historical Association investigation of history and other social studies in the schools. He is giving half time to this work and half time to Stanford University, Calif.

Harriet L. P. Friend (B.S. 1925) is director of the nursing education department, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa. She recently published an article, "Teaching Method for History of Nursing," in *Trained Nurse and Hospital Review* for December, 1929.

Orwin Bradford Griffin (Ph.D. 1928), formerly instructor in history of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and since 1921 head of the English department of Wilby High School, Waterbury, Conn., is now superintendent of public schools in Litchfield, Conn. Dr. Griffin is editor of the *Litchfield Schools Coördinator*, an informational newspaper which he established upon assuming office in Litchfield.

Marion S. Van Liew (B.S. 1912) is in the New York State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.

Margaret Hutchins (A.M. 1924) took

the position of state supervisor of home economics education in the New York State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y., August 1, 1929.

Mabel E. Smith (A.M. 1926) has recently accepted the position of superintendent of Nurses at the Women's and Children's Hospital, Toledo, O.

Thelma Mills (A.M. 1929) has been appointed to the Felix Warburg Fellowship for the spring semester. She will assist with the survey which is being undertaken by the committee on Educational Facilities for Rural People of the Vermont Commission on Country Life. Miss Mills will head up the work of that subcommittee which has in charge the discovering of the needs of girls in public high schools in Vermont.

Grace MacArthur (A.M. 1928) has recently accepted the position of dean of women at the State Teachers College, Ellensburg, Wash.

Emma H. Gunther (A.M. 1915), formerly assistant professor of household arts, Teachers College, Columbia University, is head of the program division of the Girl Scouts, who are undertaking a large new five-year development plan. This plan includes training courses in colleges for girl scout leadership and studies relating to various phases of the program of girl scouts in its homemaking, nature work, handicrafts, etc.

Lydia Ray Balderston (A.M. 1915), formerly instructor in household arts, Teachers College, Columbia University, is home consultant at the new homemaking center at the Grand Central Palace, giving advice and counsel on problems relating to the home.

Frank C. Touton (Ph.D. 1919) has been appointed vice-president and director of educational program for the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif. Dr. Touton has been teaching at the University of Southern California since 1922.